The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 22, 1890.

The Week.

THE silver debate in the Senate has been submerged by the two-days' speech of Senator Jones, and dwarfed by the more interesting events taking place in the House. Nevertheless, it is necessary to take some notice of it. The drift of things is towards free coinage, pure and simple. This is the reason, undoubtedly, why Senator Sherman gave utterance on Friday to a lot of sayings that he must know to be unsound and economically untrue. When that distinguished and enlightened statesman tells us that the Government ought to furnish the people more money, and that he would vote to buy every ounce of silver produced in this country, and keep it in the Treasury vaults and issue legal-tender certificates on it, he is not telling what he believes to be good financial policy, but what he conceives to be good politics. He is trying to save the party, just as he tried to save it twenty-two years ago by telling the people of Ohio that Government bonds were rightfully payable in greenbacks. The danger to the party was greater then than it is now, yet the party was saved by rejecting Mr. Sherman's advice and adopting the contrary policy of declaring the bonds payable in coin only. The St. Paul *Pioneer Press*, a paper of as good standing in party journalism as Mr. Sherman is in party politics, holds that it is better to face the music and "have it out" now, than to adopt any more roundabout measures like issuing $4,500,000 certificates per month in bullion and making the certificates legal tender or redeemable in silver dollars. We admire courage, and we admire truth even more. The *Pioneer Press* has displayed both qualities in the stand it has taken, but it is too much to expect Mr. Sherman to borrow anything from such an example. To Senator Teller and all the silverites we say: "Leave your damnable faces and begin." Bring on the Free-Coinage Bill, if you have votes enough, and then let President Harrison sign it or veto it, according to his mood.

The Philadelphia *Ledger* justly characterizes the Bayne-Bynum affair in the House of Representatives on Saturday as a disgrace to both parties and also to the House itself. Mr. Bayne "began it" when he put into the *Congressional Record* a letter from a private citizen named Campbell applying abusive epithets to Mr. Bynum. Undoubtedly the provocation to Campbell was great, but that was not Mr. Bayne's business. He had no right to draw the dispute or quarrel of Campbell in an offensive way into the proceedings of the House. Having done so, he might naturally expect to hear from Bynum, who has a rough side to his tongue. Mr. Bynum's tongue in this case was even rougher than the occasion called for. An uproar followed that has not been surpassed in vehemence and passion since the days of slavery, and finally Mr. Bynum was censured by a party vote, which under the circumstances is no censure at all—that is, no moral censure, since he is sustained by his own side of the House, and would not be less thought of by his constituents if he were censured in the same way forty times. Such an affair simply deprives the censure of the House of any punitive effect, and that is itself a loss to the House and to the nation.

It ought to require very few incidents like the acquittal of the Pittsburgh glass-men last week to convince workingmen the country over how little real regard for their interest is felt by the men who champion a protective tariff. Even while the Republicans in Washington, high and low, are excusing higher duties on the ground that they are in the interest of better wages for American workmen, the trial of violators of the Contract Labor Law is allowed to result in an acquittal almost by default. It is not disputed that the by-laws of the International Federation of Window-Glass-Workers contain an agreement that all foreign members of the Association coming to this country shall be given work. The profits of the Pittsburgh glass-manufacturers, protected, were so immense that new factories were built, and foreign laborers were brought over to run them. It was to test the status of these laborers that the trial was had. After a spiritless prosecution of the case, the court ruled that no contract had been proved. It is a matter of notoriety in both Washington and Pittsburgh that this result was foreordained by Quay. Campbell was one of the leaders of the Glass-Workers' Association who took the stump for "Harrison and Protection," and he and his associates succeeded in giving the vote of the glass-workers almost as a body to the Republican ticket. Quay is not a man to forget such a service; and when Campbell found himself a defendant, it is stated on good authority that Quay interceded personally with Attorney-General Miller in the defendant's behalf. As only this charge stood between Campbell and a Federal office, it is to be presumed that he will now press on Quay and Harrison the entire fulfilment of their campaign obligations. The Democrats ought to find excellent campaign material in this case, all the facts of which have not yet been made public.

We implore our "picturesque" contemporary, Mr. Murat Halstead (he applied the designation "picturesque" to himself in his testimony before the Ballot-Box Investigating Committee at Washington), not to bring to the City of Churches the kind of morality that he sends by telegraph to the Cincinnati *Commercial Gazette*. Speaking westwardly, Mr. Halstead says of the Quay scandal:

> "We have not been able to read the whole story about Col. Quay, but as the case emerges from the fog of accusation and we catch its outlines as sailors on an ocean steamer see and feel an iceberg at about the same second, Quay is charged with having left the funds of Pennsylvania intact, and to have had Senator Don Cameron behind him in doing it. Every guilty dollar was there. But they say there was a time when there was an empty compartment in the Treasury. Whether the real offence was in taking or returning the money we have not seen stated with the close attention to accuracy in the specifications that we desire before making up the final verdict."

Really, if this is the sort of moral science that is to glow in the columns of the Brooklyn *Standard-Union*, it will need a new editor soon. Col. McKelway, in his speech at the Lotus Club banquet Saturday evening, said that that unfortunate paper had had thirty-two editors-in-chief in twenty-seven years.

The Chicago *Tribune*, oddly enough, denounces the Copyright Bill, and rejoices over its defeat in the most uncompromising terms. In its last article on the subject, it contends that it is right to continue our robbing of British authors because they rob us, a doctrine which, if clung to tenaciously by mankind, would have prevented the formation of civilized communities. Also, that the Adams bill ought not to pass because it gives the "monopoly" of our markets to the owners of the foreign books sold in them, the writer forgetting that he has himself the monopoly of his own clothing, and that every owner of property has and must have a monopoly in it; forgetting, too, that foreign nations give our authors the very monopoly we offered theirs in our bill. Also, because it would prevent "the masses having cheap reading," forgetting that the institution of property makes all portable articles somewhat dearer than they would be in a state of nature. The police and the courts in Chicago both raise the price of watches to the masses. If they were abolished, watches would for a short period rule very low in that city. The writer also says that "the masses do not propose to pay three prices for their literature," which is exactly what the thieves say about watches and silverware. All theft is, in the last analysis, a question of price. There is hardly any article which any thief would not sooner buy than steal if he could get it at a price that would suit him. The *Tribune* closes with the remark:

> "Western members will do well to remember that the George E. Adams bill confers no copyright on American authors in England, and to remember that in legislation, as in everything else, charity begins at home."

This is either the product of ignorance or something worse. The English international copyright acts were passed for the express purpose of securing reciprocity, empowering the Crown to enter into conventions for that purpose with any State giving copyright to English authors. Conventions under these acts have been concluded with nearly all European States. The United States are the only great civilized Power which stands aloof, and which has educated citizens who are not ashamed of it.

There was a curious sort of hearing before the Committee on Ways and Means last week,

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when representatives of the Farmers' Alliance presented and seriously advocated a measure which proposes that the Government shall erect warehouses and receive therein wheat, corn, oats, tobacco, and cotton from the producers thereof, and advance 80 per cent. of the value thereof in cash. The "national lecturer" says that since these articles cannot be protected effectively by the tariff, this is the only way in which Governmental help can reach the great bulk of the farming class. The farmer, he says, is obliged to sell his crop as soon as it is harvested. He cannot wait. If the Government would advance him 80 per cent. of the value of his crop, he could hold it till prices became satisfactory. The cost of warehouses to hold the products would not, he thinks, be above $16,000,000, and this is a mere bagatelle as things are now going. When Mr. Flower asked him why the measure included only oats, wheat, corn, tobacco, and cotton, excluding wool, hops, rice, and cheese, he had the ready answer that "these other staples were protected by a high tariff, 75 per cent. on wool alone." That was a knock-down argument, not to Mr. Flower perhaps, but to McKinley and his faction. We trust that the national lecturer will persevere. He has just as good a right to governmental assistance as any manufacturer, or wool-grower, or hop-grower, or sugar-grower, or ship-owner; and if circumstances are such that he cannot get it by means of the tariff, he has a perfect right to "demand" it in some other way.

The Supreme Court has put a final extinguisher on the Minnesota Dressed-Beef Law, and the terms of the decision apply to all similar laws, and ought to extend to the oleomargarine laws also, in so far as they seek to prevent the importation of a wholesome article of food from one State into another. "It is one thing," says the Court, "for a State to exclude altogether from its limits cattle, sheep, or swine actually diseased, or meats that by reason of their condition or the condition of the animals from which they are taken, are unfit for human food, and punish all sales of such animals or of such meat within its limits It is quite another thing for a State to declare, as does Minnesota by the necessary operation of its statute, that fresh beef, veal, mutton, lamb, or pork—articles that are used in every part of this country to support human life—shall not be sold at all for human food within its limits unless the animal from which such meats are taken is inspected in that State, or, as is practically said, unless the animal is slaughtered in that State." The Minnesota law is declared to be unconstitutional, null and void, as it had been previously by one of the State courts and also by the United States District Court of Minnesota. This is decisive upon one point of the protective-tariff doctrine. It decides that protection shall be restricted to foreign trade and shall not exist among the States. There are still some traces of protection in State laws. Pennsylvania, for example, protects her own insurance companies against the competition of other States. When this meanness comes before the Supreme Court (as it will), it will probably be cast out as summarily as the Minnesota home butchers' law has been.

The immense appropriations already mad for pensions, and the enormous additions to the roll which are now demanded by the demagogues and claim-agents, could be justified only upon the ground that the ex-Union soldiers are an exceptionally helpless and inefficient class of men. But this is not the truth. On the contrary, Congressman Cutcheon of Michigan, himself a gallant soldier, only stated what every impartial person believes to be the fact, when he declared that his comrades are, as a rule, better off than the mass of their fellow-citizens. "In my own Grand Army post at home," he said, during a recent speech in Congress, "are many of the leading business men of the community. There are among them lawyers, physicians, merchants, capitalists, lumbermen, machinists, farmers, real-estate owners and operators, municipal and county officers. In fact, I seriously doubt if an equal number of men can be found in the community, except by careful selection, that would embrace a better average of wealth and comfort in my city [Manistee, Mich.] than the members of the Grand Army post." Equally emphatic testimony is borne by the ex-Union soldier who edits the *Times* of Chattanooga, Tenn. "The soldiers of the Union army in the civil war," he says, "have among them a larger number of self-sustaining and prosperous citizens than any other 600,000 or 700,000 of the whole population. They are found in all the walks of life, political, industrial, educational; and the number who succeed is conclusive testimony of good character, industry, sobriety, brains, and pluck. There are at least 1,000 ex-Union soldiers in Chattanooga and vicinity, and they are among our best and most successful citizens."

People in this part of the country cannot be expected to take much interest in the supplanting of the present Republican Congressman for the Sixth Kansas District by a new man in the recent nominating convention; but an incidental comment upon the occurrence by a representative Republican newspaper of the State is full of significance. "The failure to renominate Congressman Turner," says the Topeka *Capital*, "will be a disappointment to his friends, who justly consider that he has made as useful and creditable a Representative as a member can make in so large and exalted a body as the national House in so short a time. Mr. Turner has served his constituents and his State ably and faithfully, and would, in all human probability, have been renominated *but for the unfortunate tide of financial distress which has swept over the country* and rendered the path of the legislator extremely hazardous and his future doubtful." A tide of financial distress sweeping over the country under a Republican administration elected upon a high-tariff platform—what does this mean?

It will surprise nobody to learn from Mr. Clarkson's mouth that he has a low opinion of civil-service reform. His conduct as First Assistant Postmaster-General in "beating the record" as a remover of postmasters was sufficient evidence on that point. He says that, in his opinion, the Government of the United States is a "political, not a business machine"; that the "genius of our political progress lies in the active interest taken in our Government by the people"; that "to keep the people active their personal individual interest must be kept aroused," and that if they are taught to "consider that there is not only public but personal advantage to be gained, they will work, and for working they will be rewarded." That is to say, every man should be led to believe that if he works for the party, he can get an office after election. In order for Clarkson's plan to work well in practice, the number of Government offices would have to be increased to at least 5,000,000. When that was done, the President would be obliged to devote all his time to office distribution, instead of nearly all of it as at present. Clarkson would have all the incumbents turned out every four years, and a new lot put in, for he says: "I believe that continued service in the Government employ is bad for any man, and after a certain period all the public servants should be sent back to the people to renew themselves."

These are the utterances of a Department official of the Republican Administration which came into power only a little more than a year ago under a solemn pledge that "the spirit and purpose of civil-service reform should be observed in all Executive appointments," and that "all laws at variance with the object of existing reform legislation should be repealed, to the end that the *dangers to free institutions which lurk in the power of official patronage* may be wisely and effectually avoided." Mr. Clarkson's contemptuous disregard of the pledge is only more open and oral than that of his superior officer, Mr. Wanamaker, and of the President himself as well. They do not talk as he does, but they sustain his most indefensible acts, and commit others equally indefensible. Clarkson's impudence is without limit. He even has the brass to say that the "business of our Government is transacted more accurately and at a lower percentage of loss than any other public or any private business in existence, and why? Because of the fact that there is rotation in office." That is merely the old-time argument against civil-service reform, "Ours is the best civil service on the planet," with an extension to private business. Clarkson has not a particle of evidence to bring forward in support of it, for we doubt if he has any knowledge whatever of the civil service of other countries; but he is too intelligent a man to believe it himself for a moment.

The prompt nomination of Edwin Stewart as Paymaster-General of the Navy, which the President made last week, is one of his very best. Mr. Stewart's long service has been

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unusually varied and extremely creditable, both ashore and afloat. He served through the war, and has since been on duty in the Brooklyn Navy-yard and in the Navy Pay Office in this city as Pay Inspector. The resignation of Paymaster-General Looker brought him the rank of Pay Director, and from this he has been taken to fill Looker's place, which is the highest in this branch of the service; and we believe it is conceded by all who know Mr. Stewart that a better selection could not have been made, though he goes up over many heads. President Harrison has not distinguished himself, in our estimation, as a seeker after merit for high places, but in this case at least he has managed to put the right man in the right place.

The President has sent a message to Congress recommending an appropriation of money to make surveys for an international railroad to the several capitals of South America. "The creation of new and improved steamship lines," he says, "undoubtedly furnishes the readiest means of developing an increased trade with the *Latin-American* (*sic*) nations. But it should not be forgotten that it is possible to travel by land from Washington to the southernmost capital of South America, and that the opening of railroad communication with these friendly States will give to them and to us facilities for intercourse and the exchange of trade that are of special value." At the very time when this message, intended to develop increased trade with the "Latin-American" nations, was received, the House was voting to restrict, curtail, and cut off a large and flourishing trade already existing with one of them, namely, the trade in silver-lead ores from Mexico. Surely we are not suffering for railroads to countries that we are not willing to trade with after we get them.

Many American cities have had queer Mayoral experiences, but Cedar Keys in Florida has had the queerest of all. Two or three years ago a "young feller" named Cottrell turned up as a candidate for the office in that city. As nobody knew much about him, nobody knew anything against him, and the account he gave of himself was doubtless very encouraging. He told the leading citizens that if "he did not make a good Mayor, it would be because he did not know how"—a species of *reductio ad absurdum* which they all appreciated highly. It was preposterous, they said, to suppose that he did not know how to be a good Mayor, and therefore it was certain that a good Mayor he would be. When installed, he got his old cronies around him in spite of promises to surround himself with eminent citizens, and appointed as Marshal a huge ruffian, and then began to have some fun. He was, during most of his first term, more or less drunk, and while in that state he and the Marshal displayed much eccentricity. He used to make large negroes strip to the waist and butt their heads against each other, under the compulsion of a cocked revolver. He threatened the lives of a great many people, robbed several others, threatened to horsewhip a minister and his wife, and he and his Marshal compelled most of the men of the town to go armed whenever they walked the streets; in fact, had a glorious frolic. When his term expired, however, he was reëlected, some said in order to vindicate him, and others because everybody was afraid to vote against him. His second term was rather worse than the first. He had far more fun. He committed more outrages on whites and made more negroes butt heads. The Governor was appealed to in vain. Finally the United States were asked to capture him and restore order. The guns of the revenue cutter were brought to bear on him, on seeing which he fled with his faithful Marshal to the swamps, pursued by a detachment of blue-jackets and marines, and has not been caught at this writing.

The *Tribune's* despatch says:

"The town rid of the Mayor and the burly Town Marshal, Cottrell's chum, the people breathe easy and sleep pleasantly, and appear cheerful when on the street. A prominent citizen said that if they were assured Cottrell would never return, real estate would advance 25 per cent. in a year or two. The churches will be open next Sunday for divine service and thanksgiving. The absent pastors will return to their respective churches, now assured that Cottrell and the Town Marshal are gone not to return. The stores are all open. The Collector of Customs and Postmaster, and other Federal Government employees walk the streets now as they would in any other well-governed city. The change in the people and place is like a magic dream."

The citizens are also looking into the Mayor's record now, which they had previously avoided from motives of delicacy and through fear of "hurting the party," and find that he at one time killed his brother-in-law, and had, when he left, eight indictments pending against him. We feel sure that after this cities will be more careful in employing mayors of whom they know nothing, and who bring no references from their last places. But what funny recollections Cottrell and the Marshal will have of the last city they governed. We hope they are not coming up this way, for we are very susceptible to Mayoral blandishments.

Noting a remark that Mr. Cleveland is "one of the inevitable candidates for 1892," the *Tribune* observes: "Yes, and there will be the same inevitable feature about his canvass that there was in 1888: he'll get left." You seem to forget, esteemed one, that in the words of your own memorable Confession of Feb. 14, 1890, the "inevitable feature" of the election of 1888 consisted in the fact that, "as people here well know, Hill succeeded only because he was able to sell a Presidency for a Governorship." Now, you must know that Hill will not be in the market with a Presidency or anything else to sell to the Republicans in 1892. His term will expire in 1891, and his successor will have to be elected in November of that year. You will see, therefore, that you are in error in saying that "there will be the same inevitable feature about the canvass [of 1892] that there was in 1888." It may be that the Republicans will be able to buy the Presidency again in that year—you are in better position to speak on that point than we are; but you must admit that they will not be able to buy it of Hill.

Gov. Hill has signed the act which forbids a "public officer, or a deputy, clerk, assistant, or other subordinate of a public officer, or any person appointed or employed by or in the office of a public officer," to receive "any emolument, gratuity, or reward or any promise of emolument, gratuity, or reward, or any money, property, or thing of value or of personal advantage, except such as may be authorized by law, for doing or omitting to do any official act, or for performing or omitting to perform or for having performed or omitted to perform any act whatsoever directly or indirectly related to any matter in respect to which any duty or discretion is by or in pursuance of law imposed upon or vested in him." Violation of this act will be adjudged a felony, punishable by imprisonment for not more than ten years, or by a fine not exceeding $4,000, or by both. If this law had been in force since 1884, the Mayor and seven other Tammany men would now be in grave peril of fine and imprisonment, the Mayor for taking illegal auctioneer's and "extra-compensation" fees as Sheriff, and "Barney" Martin and other Sheriff's deputies for exacting illegal fees from the occupants of Ludlow Street Jail. Both the Governor and the Legislature, in uniting for the enactment of the new law, have passed judgment upon the Mayor and his fellow-Tammany officials, declaring their acts to be of such indefensible character as to require legal prohibition under heavy penalties of fine and imprisonment.

The Grand Jury has found indictments against all three members of the Board of Excise, Mayor Grant's appointees, for wilful breach of official duty, an offence which is a misdemeanor, and the penalty for which is imprisonment in a penitentiary or county jail for not more than one year, or a fine of not more than $500, or both. With the conviction of Barker, the Thirteenth District Tammany leader, for assault, and with the indictment of seven other Tammany officials, who only escaped trial by the statute of limitations, this indictment of the three Excise Commissioners furnishes the city with the astonishing spectacle of ten of its governing class for whom the "penitentiary is yawning." As a final touch to the picture, one of the Excise Commissioners, Koch, was literally roaring drunk when he appeared in court to answer to the indictment! And this is government in the foremost city of America, in the latter part of the nineteenth century, by a Mayor whom we came very near having at the head of a World's Fair organized for the purpose of displaying the greatness and glory of American institutions as they have been built up during the 400 years which have followed the discovery by Columbus!

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PARTY AND OTHER MORALITY.

MANY good people, including some religious papers, are much troubled, and very naturally, over the display of immorality made by members of both parties in the House in the vote on the International Copyright Bill, and above all in the arguments used against the bill. These arguments would indeed have been very shocking if we were not used to them. This discussion over international copyright has now been going on for half-a-century, and the pros and cons of the question have been thoroughly canvassed. It may be said that, as a rule, all intelligent Americans who acknowledge that there is such a thing as literary property at all, have ranged themselves on the side of those who are willing to provide legal protection for the foreign author in this country, in return for similar protection for our authors in foreign countries. A very marked feature in the controversy has been the increasingly prominent part which the question of right or wrong, as distinguished from the mere question of commercial expediency, has been made to play in it. In other words, international copyright has, as the years have gone by, been more and more urged on the ground that the publication and sale of an author's works, without his consent and without paying him any compensation, by another person for the purpose of making money by it, is theft or fraud in the sense in which these offences are forbidden in the commandment, "Thou shalt not steal."

The answer usually made to this by the opponents of international copyright is, that to give the foreign author property in his books on this side of the water would make them dearer, and that cheap books are so important for the American people that it is lawful to steal them from a foreigner, if they cannot be got cheap in any other way. It has been, in fact, maintained in terms, that it is far more important that an American should be well read and intelligent than that he should be honest. One member, in the late debate, told with pride a story of his having himself paid nine dollars a volume for the 'Encyclopædia Britannica' when it first came out, a work requiring an immense expenditure of brains and capital, for which the publishers paid American and British authors equally. Going to spend the night at the house of a farmer friend in Illinois some time later, he found on his shelves a pirated edition which came from Philadelphia and only cost $2.25 a volume. On this he (Mr. Payson) made the astonishing comment:

> "But there, sir, in an humble home in my county, in the sitting-room of an humble farmer, is a library in itself, made possible by the laws under which you and I live, and I am content with them. [Applause.] I am just now advised that a reprint of that work is out at $1.25 per volume. And so with other books."

This is exactly what a Norse statesman in the ninth century might have said after passing a night in a farm-house on one of the fjords, and having seen it filled with rich plunder from the coasts of Britain and France. "Thank God," he would observe, "under the laws and customs of our happy country, when the poor husbandman wants a new set of furniture and some ornaments for his bride, he can man his galley and run across the sea, and slaughter a Saxon family, and fit up his humble home with comfort and decency from the sack of their house; and yet there are canting rascals who say piracy is wrong."

No one can read such a speech as this of Mr. Payson's without feeling that there exists among men professing the Christian faith in the United States a moral separation of a very serious kind, which now shows itself most markedly in politics, but cannot exist in politics very long without making its way into business and other fields, and which needs prompt attention on the part of those who consider themselves the guardians of morals. How serious it is, cannot be better illustrated than by a quotation from Senator Ingalls of Kansas. He said not long ago to a reporter of the *World*, in an interview illustrated by instantaneous photographs of his various positions when speaking:

> "The purification of politics is an iridescent dream. Government is force. Politics is a battle for supremacy. Parties are the armies. The decalogue and the golden rule have no place in a political campaign. The object is success. To defeat the antagonist and expel the party in power is the purpose. The Republicans and Democrats are as irreconcilably opposed to each other as were Grant and Lee in the Wilderness. They use ballots instead of guns, but the struggle is as unrelenting and desperate and the result sought for the same. In war it is lawful to deceive the adversary, to hire Hessians, to purchase mercenaries, to mutilate, to kill, to destroy. The commander who lost a battle through the activity of his moral nature would be the derision and jest of history. This modern cant about the corruption of politics is fatiguing in the extreme. It proceeds from the tea-custard and syllabub dilettanteism, the frivolous and desultory sentimentalism of epicenes."

Now, this man is in our estimation a thorough charlatan. Intellectually he is unworthy of the smallest consideration. He has made no mark whatever as a legislator, nor has he made the smallest contribution to the political thought of the country. He is very foul-mouthed in debate, and is more than suspected of having bought his seat in the Senate. What he most prides himself upon, and oftenest refers to boastfully, is his sex, a quality which, of course, he shares with half the animal kingdom. But our opinion of him is by no means the general one. He has been elected three times by a Republican State to the United States Senate, and has been repeatedly—the last time very recently—elected President of the Senate by the Republican majority. Consequently he may be said to stand for his party very markedly. We commend him and his talk to the serious consideration of those who are troubled on moral grounds by the action of the House on the Copyright Bill. The more they ponder it, the more suggestive they will find it.

INTERNATIONAL BOYCOTTING.

THE London *Speaker* has an article on the recent defeat of the Copyright Bill in the House of Representatives, which proposes to mark the English sense of the dishonesty of the performance, and to punish the majority who voted against the bill, in a novel way. The plan is to turn to account, in the interest of honesty, the strong desire of American tourists for participation in English social life. As is well known, London is visited every season by a large number of American politicians and business men, generally on pleasure bent, who are extremely desirous to be the objects of British hospitality, to be asked to dinners and balls and garden-parties in fashionable circles, and to be put down at the leading clubs, and generally made much of as Americans, or "Amuricans," as the *Saturday Review* calls them. Now the *Speaker* proposes to take advantage of this weakness or ambition, and make out a black-list containing the names of the 126 who voted against the Copyright Bill, and boycott them socially whenever they come to England. It says:

> "But when there is no room for any doubt as to the guilt of an American visitor—when, for example, we know that he is a member of the majority which last week gave a dishonest and disgraceful vote—there can be no hesitation as to the course which it is our duty to pursue. No man who has taken part in the maintenance of this system of organized theft is fit to be admitted to English society. No club should open its doors to him; no private person should offer him hospitality. If he comes here, let him be treated as a pariah, and made to feel himself the moral leper and outcast that he is. Between him and the swell mobsman who picks one's pocket, or the 'smart' thief who carries off a jewel-box from a lady's dressing-room, there is really not a pin to choose, so far as relative degrees of guilt are concerned."

That this would be a terrible infliction to some American travellers we think is very likely; but if the *Speaker* supposes that this punishment will reach many, if any, of the 126, it is much mistaken. In fact, we greatly fear the mere threat is going to help them in the home society they most value. In the first place, opponents of international copyright seldom go to Europe, and, when they do go, they are apt to avoid the haunts of the nobility and gentry. They are too good Americans to care for the attentions of what they consider "the snobs" of the London clubs. The late A. T. Stewart was once examined in court as to the value of some old lace. The counsel began by asking him whether as a traveller in Europe he was not familiar with the lace worn by great ladies at court balls and receptions. He promptly and proudly answered "I am an American citizen, sir, and I do not go to court balls and receptions." We have no doubt the anti-copyright majority will hurl back the *Speaker's* threat in the same way. They have a thorough contempt for English hospitality, and would not be seen inside the clubs of an effete free-trade aristocracy. In fact, we should not be surprised if some of them went over this summer in order to have this British hospitality denied them in some conspicuous way. To be treated "as a pariah" in the land of the Cobden Club would make the political fortune of a good many of them. It would be worth far more to them than Mrs. Cleveland's failure to shake hands was worth to Foraker. They would run on it for a second term in Congress, or apply for a pension on it, or for a consulship, just as a vindication.

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We must, however, put in a word ourselves in behalf of at least some of these copyright sinners. The *Speaker*, in passing condemnation on them *en bloc* and fixing their sentence, assumes that they are all equally guilty, or we might say all guilty. Now, it is, in the interest of international comity, a mistake to assume this. There are some honest men in the 126—that is, there are men who deny the existence of literary property or are unable to conceive of it—a state of mind which at one time existed all over the world, and still exists among ignorant and barbarous people. The notion of literary property is a product of the growth of civilization. There are others whose judgment is disturbed by the fact that there was no copyright at common law, and that many great books have been produced without any hope of pecuniary reward. These and many other considerations, which we have no space to mention here, naturally befog a good many honest men not used to processes of reasoning or to historical views of jurisprudence.

So there must in common justice be some discrimination in the treatment of the 126 when they get to London. All should not, for social purposes, be put in the same category. Probably none of them is fit to be put down at White's, or Boodle's, or the Carlton or Athenæum, but there are undoubtedly some who might be let in as visitors to the Reform or the National Liberal Club. Probably none of them, also, is entitled to a dinner at one of the great houses in town or to a Sunday in a country-house, but many, we are sure, are not unworthy to come in after dinner for a little music, or to be asked to an afternoon tea, or a garden-party, or to be allowed to see the gold vaults of the Bank of England or get into the strangers' gallery in the House. Some effort should be made to proportion the punishment in this way to the offence; and, if we might make a suggestion as to method, we should say that a good way of doing exact justice would be to have the offenders all brought up on their arrival before our old friend Squire Smalley of Norfolk, who could examine each case on its merits, and decide, as no one else in London could decide, on the exact grade of entertainment to which it would be proper to admit each applicant. It would of course be a delicate duty, but the Squire does not shirk social responsibilities because they are delicate.

THE FARMER AND THE CARPENTER.

At a meeting in Boston some weeks ago of a club which bears his name, Gen. Butler delivered himself of utterances on the labor question which were luminous and incisive to a degree, though, if the newspaper reports of his speech are to be trusted, he twisted his facts in a highly characteristic way to serve a paltry purpose, and made no special effort to enforce the true lessons which his statements teach.

It is an old and well-known story that, in the last analysis, the wages of labor in this country are based upon Indian corn. Corn is a crop easily grown, very productive, and extremely useful for feeding (and cheering) man and beast. Even as a fuel, corn is held to be the equal of the best hard wood, and it is actually used in many localities as a cheaper fuel than wood or coal. Every one familiar with agricultural literature knows that, taking one year with another, no sound American man will "hire out" for a less sum than he can gain by working upon land for himself and cultivating maize. Gallatin, Harriet Martineau, Robert Russell, and many other writers have touched upon this point, and more than thirty years have passed since Mr. Russell put upon record the familiar boast of the prairie farmer that he can cultivate in a single season forty, or even fifty, acres of corn. In this fact more than in any other is seen the determining cause of the fortune of the Republic. The very great significance of it was capitally illustrated by the endurance of the Confederacy. Nowhere else in the world can great crowds of immigrants so surely find immediate and adequate support as upon the corn lands of the great Valley, and it may even be said of the present temporary drift of men towards regions of wheat and of grass, that the movement serves to illustrate the transcendent merit of the corn-belt.

On the other hand, the census returns assure us that almost, though not quite, one-half of the population of the United States are occupied with agricultural pursuits, and the corn-wage necessarily governs and controls every one of these agricultural workers; and so it would immediately affect all other workers in the United States were it not for the innate malevolence of man. Rightly considered, the prime purpose of the trade-unionist here in America is to help to exclude "the outs." Mechanics and factory hands, on finding themselves living in much more comfortable circumstances than the farmers, have hastened to combine with their fellows in order the better to escape from the influence of the corn-wage by keeping the farmers upon the land. Upon every side the handicraftsman is seen seeking to protect himself by giving a very cold shoulder to those laborers who may wish to migrate from the farm to the workshop.

In spite of all manner of opposition, there is, as everybody knows, a constant movement of young men away from the hard work of the farm towards the easier occupations of railroading, shop-keeping, the mechanic arts, and what not; and nothing tends so strongly to check this movement as the hostile attitude of the men who have already got away from the farm and bettered their own condition. Nothing can be clearer than the truth that the chief result of any successful activity of workingmen's unions is to hinder or destroy the movement of labor from the farm to the workshop, and in so far to prevent the farm-hand from earning more money than he can get by the occupation of growing corn.

Now up speaks Benjamin Butler, and sets forth this long old story in a few well-chosen words:

"We all know," he says, as reported in the Boston *Herald* of May 2, "that a great strike of the carpenters and builders is going on in Chicago, and threatens on this day to extend itself to 100,000 workmen in this country. Their claim is that the skilled workman shall be employed eight hours a day only, even if his individual wish is to work longer, and that he shall be paid therefor 40 cents an hour. . . .

"Now, look to the farmers—I do not mean the mere farm laborer, but to the man who owns and tills the soil himself. Let us put the skilled operative with his tools on the one side, and the farmer with his farm, say of 160 acres of land, on the other side of the scale, and ascertain if we can the result. Within twenty-four hours' railroad ride of Chicago, the farmer cannot get more than fifteen cents a bushel for his corn. He cannot raise on the average of years, year in and year out, more than fifteen bushels to the acre. He cannot cultivate with his own hands more than fifty acres, and, to do so much, he must be aided by the approved modern appliances and horse power in some form to do that. Therefore, it will be seen at once—and I think I have given the largest possible value to the farmers' corn products—that the carpenter can earn twenty-one bushels of corn by a day's labor, or, in the year of 300 working days, 6,400 bushels of corn, or $960 in money, the purchaser buying the corn where the farmer sells it. If there is any mistake in my figures anywhere, it is that no farmer by his individual effort, without the use of very expensive horse power and machinery to aid him for a portion of the year, can do the labor necessary upon fifty acres of land and its crop, and if he hires any additional labor, it must come out of what he raises, and in that case the labor must be excessively cheap if he can make any profit on it. Fifty acres yielding fifteen bushels to the acre at 15 cents a bushel would be $112.50 for the farmer's crop. Another reply may be made that he need not work more than half of his time in raising his corn and devote the remainder of his time to taking care of himself and his family and matters of that sort. The farmer works sixteen hours a day when he works at all, and that during half of his time. The skilled mechanic works half of his time for the whole year, taking care of himself and his family, and improving his condition, otherwise, if he so chooses, in the other half. At the time when Washington repaired the President's house in Philadelphia, as will appear from the Treasury accounts, his carpenter received pay at the rate of 50 cents a day, and he worked from sun to sun. At the same time in the New England States—there were no Western States then—the farm-hand worked from sun to sun, taking for his pay a peck of corn meal, which he shouldered and carried home to his family. That corn meal was then worth from a quarter of a dollar to 40 cents in time of scarcity. In Washington's time the carpenters did all the heavy work, sawing, planing, hewing. All that is now done by machinery elsewhere than at the place of labor of the carpenter."

Of course the farmer, as a general rule, may get his hog and hominy, his bread, milk, butter, and fuel, and even his house room, for a smaller expenditure of money than the carpenter can, though it is most emphatically in the sweat of his face that the farmer gains these advantages. The candid reader will not fail to make due allowance for these considerations, as well as for any semblance of exaggeration which he may think to detect in the cited figures; but the fundamental, undeniable fact remains, that there is a wide gulf between the gains of the carpenter and those of the farmer, and Gen. Butler is to be complimented for his forcible presentation of this truth.

If the reporters have told us aright, Gen. Butler drew no other moral from his figures than that a change in relation to the rewards of farming labor must come very soon, and that the farm mortgages of the West will never be paid. But no long-continued study of his facts will be needed to convince every impartial observer that the organization known as the Knights of Labor is an offensive and venomous fly on the chariot

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wheel of society, and that those "philanthropists" and "moralists" who sympathize with the buzzings of this impertinent insect have been grossly deceived.

Gen. Butler might have dwelt also on the bearings of his figures upon the claim of the protectionists that high wages are caused by our high tariff, a claim which is not a little absurd in view of the enormous preponderance of agriculturists in this country. Since nearly one-half of our people are immediately occupied with farming, and vast numbers of men are engaged in moving and selling the crops and in buying and carrying supplies to the farm-laborers, it follows necessarily that the wages of much more than one-half the population of the United States must depend directly upon the prices which the world is ready to pay for agricultural products. In point of fact, the chief influence of the tariff on wages is seen in those wholly exceptional cases where the immediate necessities of a manufacturer may compel him for the moment to submit to the demands of a limited number of work-people organized to exclude competing laborers, and strengthened by the moral support of an unthinking and unenlightened public.

THE CONVENTION OF WORKING-GIRLS' CLUBS.

THE full report of the convention of working-girls' clubs, lately held in this city, is a volume which may well give ground for thought. There is nothing which invites so much to oppression on the part of the strong as a dejected spirit on the part of the weak; and if the poor sewing-woman, whose name has hitherto been a synonym for the crushed and the down-trodden, has come to hiring halls and making speeches in her own behalf, it may well be believed that a better era is setting in for her.

The term workingman calls up at the present moment a picture of something firm and self-reliant—discontented, perhaps, and more or less unreasonable, but conscious that he is not altogether without power to affect his own circumstances, and hence conscious that he is a man. There is no reason why the term workingwoman should not carry with it a similar connotation. In this country there are few workingwomen who do not at least earn enough to buy themselves sufficient food; and, short of insufficient food, there is no reason why a workingwoman should not, if she orders her life well, have that spirit and energy and hopefulness which, after all, are the inmost secret of the happiness of all of us, and which are enough to prevent any class of people from being regarded, or from regarding themselves, as a pitiable portion of the human race.

The proper objects of working-girls' clubs are, it seems to us, two in number: (1) to teach the working-girl not to waste the means of happiness which are now within her reach, and (2) to give her that feeling of solidarity, of mutual trustfulness, of confidence in the power of concerted action, which will enable her, as occasion presents itself, to make effectual claim to a larger and larger share of the products of her labor. Existing clubs seem to have done little as yet towards organizing strikes. There is no necessity for having that object distinctly in view, but neither is there any doubt that the strong feeling for the common good which club life not of the frivolous kind tends to promote, will furnish the standing ground from which to force, either directly or indirectly, better terms from employers. A beginning in this direction has been made by the association of stenographers of Philadelphia. Its members pledge themselves not to accept less than a fixed standard of compensation; they also exact of themselves a fixed standard of work. Last year this association held the first banquet ever given by workingwomen to themselves.

The other object—that of securing a greater amount of happiness out of their present earnings—is a simpler matter. Happiness, for all of us, is at bottom very little a matter of the richness of our surroundings; it is much more intimately connected with their cleanliness, refinement, and good taste. Mr. Stanton Coit, after an intimate acquaintance with the very poor, said that the chief respect in which the rich differed from them was in the use of the tooth-brush. But habits of personal cleanliness are readily learned when quick-witted girls see of what vital consequence they are to the ladies who attend their clubs. Pleasing surroundings are easily in reach of girls in their club-rooms, if not in their homes. The most interesting report in this book is that which describes the way in which the Hartford working-girls are engaged in furnishing their summer home. Old packing-boxes are converted by muslin into washstands and tables, or by paint into book cases and cabinets. Pictures cut out of art newspapers are mounted on seasoned pine boards with a margin painted in gold and silver and finished with a row of picture-screws. All the bed-linen and table-linen is marked with a pansy, in different colors for the different rooms; hammock pillows are made of bits of newspaper torn fine; the hangings and sofa-covers for the parlor, which is to be in Dresden-china colors, are made of blue denim embroidered in white, and this embroidery is kept at the rooms of the United Workers, and worked upon by any one who has a few moments to spare.

Does not all this give a far more pleasing picture of summer rest, though it be only for a week or two for each worker, than the denizen of the crowded summer boarding-house is now looking forward to? Will all the monotonous fancy work which is to be executed upon the piazzas of sea-side hotels this summer give half the pleasure which is being got by these girls out of their blue denim embroidered in white? Separate pleasures are not in the reach of working-girls, but, by putting their small means together, pleasures in common may be had by them to an almost unlimited degree.

If we should ask ourselves what would be the source of our most poignant suffering, were we suddenly to be forced to live among the very poor, the answer would probably be (after the loss of good air and cleanliness) the lack of a courteous and considerate behavior on the part of our associates. Scolding mothers, ill-tempered fathers, quarrelsome brothers and sisters—these are things much more productive of unhappiness than poor food, hard beds, or long hours of work. The association of working-girls with the ladies who aid them in their clubs has a marvellous effect in quieting their manners and teaching them gentleness and forbearance. What the people who are most to be envied have reason to pride themselves upon more than all their possessions, is the subtle charm with which they know how to invest human intercourse. This is, in its perfection, the product of generations of culture, but its beginnings are not difficult to catch by girls who have the training in quickness which the sewing-machine brings with it. Their wealth the rich are not very likely to share with the poor, but the outward forms of respect which they show each other may not impossibly penetrate further and further into the lower strata of society, until virtuous poverty is robbed of no small portion of its hardness.

Clubs may easily be of so much advantage to working-girls that it is hard to see how any benevolent ladies who are not already overwhelmed with work for others can help doing something to start them, one after another, in large numbers, and to help them to become, as soon as possible, independent of outside aid. There is no doubt that the New York Convention will be productive of great enthusiasm among both of the necessary parties to the working-girls' club.

BISMARCK AS AN ECONOMIST.

THE May number of the *Journal des Économistes* contains a long and very interesting review of a history of Prince Bismarck's economical opinions, in two volumes, by Herr von Poschinger, who edited the Prince's 'Diplomatic Correspondence between 1851 and 1859.' The book is an avowed apology, and consists in the main of extracts from speeches and official and private correspondence, illustrating the various changes which the Prince's economical opinions have undergone. The author is so great an admirer of his hero that he maintains not only that the Prince is a great economist, but that he reaches correct economical conclusions by a process of simple intuition, while other men are toiling after them by a laborious process of deductive and inductive reasoning.

The book unfortunately does not bring us down later than 1880, when Bismarck became Minister of Commerce himself; but after 1880 his views underwent no serious modification. Before 1880 there were six periods in his economical history. The first is the period of his parliamentary activity as a young Tory, or "Junker," between 1847 and 1851. The second includes his diplomatic apprenticeship at Frankfort, St. Petersburg, and Paris, between 1851 and 1862. The third begins with his nomination

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as Prussian Prime Minister in 1862, and ends with the foundation of the North German Confederation in 1867. The fourth includes the nine years between 1867 and 1876, during which Delbrück was Minister of Finance, and Bismarck lived under his ideas. The fifth was from 1876 to 1878, when Hoffmann was Minister of State, and the sixth from 1878 till Bismarck took possession of the Ministry of Commerce himself in 1880.

As regards the first period, from 1847 to 1851, when he was simply a parliamentary Junker, it may be said that in it he had no economical opinions at all except such as were suggested by some personal grievance or some matter of personal observation. He talked a little about the income tax, about the forest laws, and about the condition of the working classes, but he had no general ideas. The only sign of the growth of a body of doctrine which appeared was a speech in 1849 advocating the extension of the protectionist system to workingmen by legal provision for their comfort in the matter of wages, and hours of labor, and so forth. In that speech he made a vigorous attack on the protection accorded to manufacturers, on the ground that it infringed the rights of individuals in hindering them from buying where they pleased, for the purpose of enriching a small class of the community.

During his eleven years of diplomatic service there are numerous allusions in his correspondence to economical matters, but only allusions. He develops no new theories. It was not until he took office as Minister of Foreign Affairs in 1862 and entered on the task of establishing German unity, which subsequently gave him his immense fame, that he made himself in any degree known to the world as an economist. He found free-trade doctrines at that time in full possession of the field. All Prussian public men of note were disciples of Adam Smith, and the country was very prosperous under the free-trade régime. Bismarck himself was, to all outward seeming, in full accord with them, and he acted on their ideas in negotiating a treaty of commerce with France, and expounded these ideas in a memorandum explaining and defending the treaty. He did not make himself prominent as an economist, but lived in this matter in (for him) curious subordination to Delbrück, the then Minister of Commerce. What seemed to interest him most in the economical field at that period was the condition of the working classes, and the question of State provision for their old age. The germs of subsequent legislation on this subject were then clearly in his mind, and he coquetted more or less with Lassalle and other men of socialistic views. In one of his reports to the King on the condition of the Silesian weavers, he denounces "the abstract doctrines of political economy" in the now familiar fashion. In 1866 he got Prof. Dühring of the University of Berlin (in Germany, professors are supposed to know something about governmental questions) to make him two reports, one on State interference on behalf of the working classes, and the other on the best means of providing loan banks for landed proprietors. With the question of foreign trade and its conditions he can hardly be said to have meddled actively.

When he became Chancellor of the Empire, and initiated the thoroughgoing protectionist policy in 1878 which has lasted ever since, he was taunted with his departure from the principles which he either advocated or acquiesced in between 1867 and 1878, and excused himself on the ground that he was at that time engaged in a great political undertaking to the success of which a free-trade policy was necessary. A treaty of commerce with France, for instance, was a useful defence against Austria, which was trying to break up the North German Zollverein. Moreover, he needed Delbrück's coöperation so much in the work of internal organization that he felt compelled to let him have his way in fiscal matters.

It is in fact difficult, in running through his speeches and letters on economical questions, to avoid the conclusion that he has never in his long career given any attention worth mention to economical questions as economical questions simply; that is, never made any study of them on a broad scale, and with complete detachment from political considerations. His economy has been literally political economy. If we analyze his economical views, we find they are in part made up of his needs and prejudices as a large farmer; in part of a strong sympathy with the working classes and a desire to better their condition by a sort of monarchical or authoritative socialism, somewhat like the English "Tory democracy," and in part of a stern determination to use every means that "God and Nature" might have put into his hands to promote German unity. It is probably through the last that we are to account for the protectionist policy pursued since 1878. A high tariff has seemed a potent means of welding the confederation into a nationality, and it has accordingly been resorted to, with probably but little regard for its purely economical results, which thus far have, we may add, been rather deplorable.

THE UNIFICATION OF MEXICO.

To those who, twenty years, or even only twelve years ago, visited the Mexican Republic, its present aspect is, although not startling, still at least gratifying. In our own country we are accustomed to rapid changes: a city grows up in the course of a few years; a few years suffice to transform a wilderness into a productive farming region. No such changes *à vue d'œil*, occur in our sister republic, and yet a steady change is creeping over it—slow and gradual—perceptible only after years. But this slow growth promises to be durable, provided it is not interfered with from outside.

There is little danger of internal disturbances. The present Government of Mexico appears to be solidly established. The fact that President Diaz is continued and will probably be continued in office for an indefinite time is significant, but only an indication, and not in itself sufficient proof of permanence of the rule of which he is the head. There are many other points of greater importance which speak in favor of the maintenance of peace in Mexico, and consequently of the dawning of an era of at least modest prosperity.

The war which the Mexican people waged against foreign intervention, represented by the unfortunate Emperor Maximilian, had a singular effect upon that people. Until then, a nation had not, in reality, existed in Mexico. The success of the insurrection against Spain had not given them the consciousness of community of interests, language, and tradition, the feeling of solidarity from which national ideas arise. On the contrary, freedom from Spanish rule meant, in the minds of the majority, a return to conditions before the conquest—tribal and linguistic separation, to be maintained with the advanced methods of warfare due to European teachings. It was a herculean task on the part of abler minds to hold up before the eyes of a multitude unable yet to comprehend it the ideal of a fusion of local, tribal, and racial instincts into a common national feeling. It is no wonder if all attempts failed, and if to be a patriot in Mexico became synonymous with being a victim of particularism based upon local, religious, or merely personal grounds. It is a great wonder even that the republic did not go to pieces completely. The war with the United States failed to arouse a national feeling, owing to its disastrous results from the very inception. Had Mexico held its own, the result would have been different, for then there would have been something to be proud of, and every part of the country would have been anxious to share in the triumph. As it was, it merely increased the calamities of partisanship, by giving color to just and unjust recriminations. Every one looked to his neighbor for the guilt of the national disaster, of the humiliation which Mexico had been made to suffer.

In fact, the only element of union which Mexico possessed after its separation from Spain should have been the Church; or, rather, the Church in Mexico was the only power sufficiently free from local influences to become an element of union. It cannot be said that the Church in Mexico fulfilled its mission as well as it should. Still, it must be acknowledged that it maintained its position, and that the very opposition which it called forth, by creating an anti-clerical party in every State of the so-called republic, greatly fostered the feeling of coherence and of mutual relationship that is the precursor of the national idea. It is well known that the Church was not originally in favor of the Mexican insurgents, that it anathematized Hidalgo, seeing in him only the standard-bearer of a violent movement of purely racial character. As soon, however, as independence became an established fact, and a form of government was adopted promising law and order throughout the land, the Church, true to its principles, recognized it, and became the corner-stone on which a national idea could rest. Its very opponents were forced to become a national party.

Whether the sequestration of church property was a just or an unjust measure, need not be discussed here. It certainly had more to do with the attempt to plant a foreign empire in Mexico than may be generally conceded. At first the Church was decidedly imperialistic, or at least the clergy was favorable to the Empire. They hoped for the recovery of lost privileges, and, perhaps, of lost property also. But the weakness of the new régime soon became apparent, and none saw it earlier or more clearly than the Church in Mexico. At the same time they noticed that an opposition was forming against Maximilian which was no longer a matter of race or opinion, but a matter of true nationality; and they understood that the downfall of the empire was inevitable. Juarez himself was not a man of re-

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markable ability, but he became the standard-bearer of national aspirations, and in this sense his memory is nearer and dearer to the Mexican people than that of Hidalgo, whose headship was only for racial revenge, as was that of Morelos subsequently. After Maximilian's hapless end, Mexico had become at least a rudimentary nation.

Some struggles were still necessary before the innate tendencies to segregation were so far subdued as to yield the first place and rank in Mexican politics to ideas of a national character. When Porfirio Diaz became President for the first time, the experiment was yet doubtful. But the peaceful election of Gonzales, and the equally peaceable return of Diaz to the Presidential chair, proved that the power of sectionalism was largely broken, and that the Mexicans had become conscious of the need to be Mexicans first, and only in the second line citizens and defenders of the interests of the various sections from which they originated or where they resided.

Twelve years of uninterrupted peace have further consolidated the national idea, and have made Porfirio Diaz its official representative. There are, of course, chronic opponents. There is an opposition to him and to his actions and decrees; to the modifications which, under his rule, have been brought about in the Utopian character of so-called institutions, most of which were hardly better than plans on paper. The great majority of the people feel that, with him and his surroundings, peace and security to life and property have been upheld, and that, while a great many things are far from being as they should be, it is to the direct interest of the country to overlook deficiencies for the sake of what has been obtained and what every earnest man in Mexico has so long sighed for in vain. They feel, with dread, that any change can only be for the worse, and therefore the honest men of all former parties are glad to support a régime that has thus far placed Mexico in a condition such as had been dreamt of before, but which sectional and partisan dissensions had always forbidden to exist.

From this feeling of tacit adhesion the clerical party in Mexico is not exempt. The stringent laws against the Church, some of which are silly, may never be modified, and yet it is well known that the upper clergy look with great favor upon the Government, and that their personal relations are unusually cordial. The Government has hereby eliminated a very dangerous element of disturbance. Where the temporal and spiritual powers are so closely linked together as they of necessity must be in Mexico, harmony between the two is essential for the stability of both, and especially for the welfare of the people itself. The present relations between the Government and the Church in Mexico are, of course, exposed to much gossip; but the fact that, after seventy years, during which mutual griefs had grown into a seemingly insurmountable barrier, both sides have dropped rancor and forgotten revenge and hatred to such an extent as to make their relations beneficent to all who inhabit the republic of Mexico, certainly shows on both sides an undercurrent of at least commendable patriotism.

Porfirio Diaz is known to have swiftly, and sometimes terribly, repressed attempts at disorder — nay, to have acted mercilessly upon the very first indication of disobedience. But he has also conciliated his opponents quite as often as he has repressed them by force. Therefore, the military power lies in his hands, and is no longer, as it formerly was, a constant threat to peace and life. The Mexican regular army may not be ideal in many ways; nevertheless it is an element of tranquillity in a country to which it formerly was a scourge. Herein lies another element of stability for the present and future of Mexico.

The recognition of the English debt has been the cause of much unfavorable comment upon the Government and its representatives, and even of attempts at open resistance, and yet, now that this measure is bearing its fruits, no sensible man in Mexico denies that the sacrifice thereby imposed on the nation is being more than amply compensated, instead of being a sordid speculation for purely personal advantage. The recognition of the English debt has proved to be a master-stroke of financial policy and of diplomatic skill. It has established for Mexico a growing credit in the markets of Europe, and has increased the ingress of European capital. Consequently industry and commerce have assumed a slow but steady upward tendency, which will finally induce indigenous capital, released from the dangers to which it has heretofore been exposed, to compete with foreign capital in the development of the country's natural resources. With an established credit, no longer compelled to resort to irregular and therefore oppressive taxation, the Mexican Government enjoys the support of whatever money may give and afford, not in the exaggerated sense of unlimited resources, but in the position of a nation accredited at the Board of Finance of the civilized world, good for its intrinsic value, and controlled, in its financial policy, by the consequences which that policy (or lack of policy) may entail.

No measure of the Mexican Government has been so much commented upon, favorably and unfavorably, as the opening of the country to the construction of railroads. Censure of such a measure seems overwhelmingly ridiculous to us; but in Mexico, we must not forget, there were apprehensions of a political nature which the conduct and public expressions of Anglo-Americans fully justified at the time. The result has proved highly advantageous to Mexico, and not wholly detrimental to foreign capital, though less productive than was originally anticipated. At all events, the advantage, notwithstanding every sacrifice, remains with the country through which these railroads operate. Aside from the usual benefits afforded by railroads to any country, it has brought people of the most remote sections of Mexico in personal contact, has thus contributed largely to the process of nationalization and unification, and has placed at the Government's command a vehicle which, in case of necessity, will enable it to prevent the hatching of revolutions, for which remote districts were formerly so convenient.

With the railroads, enterprises have entered Mexico which, while they may not immediately yield in proportion to their importance, afford new elements of subsistence to a people that has been, for centuries, often confined to the meagre resources of naturally unsatisfactory surroundings. Those enterprises afford the Government a new source of revenue, although very liberal conditions are usually given to the establishment of industries. They disseminate work, therefore money, among the people, and divert their thoughts from disorder and lawlessness, for the propagation of which idleness and misery have always been the most favorable hot-beds.

Under these circumstances, the chances for permanence of the actual régime in Mexico appear more favorable than those of any of its predecessors. A great portion of the clouds which have heretofore covered the sky are dispelled, and in all probability for ever. New difficulties will doubtless arise, but with a once disciplined crew and able officers, the Mexican ship of state can weather the storms which the future may bring. Internal troubles are not likely to occur, and the Government has thus far maintained its dignity towards foreign nations without giving any legitimate cause for complaint or trouble. A quarrel may, of course, be picked with Mexico, as well as everywhere else; but no nation, whether near or remote, has any interest in interrupting the slow upward movement of a country with which amicable relations can only be advantageous, whereas war, even if successful, will never lead to a permanent conquest.

BALFOUR'S LAND BILL.

DUBLIN, May 5, 1890.

THE adoption of Chief Secretary Balfour's Land Bill by a majority of eighty on the second reading in the House of Commons practically assures the passing of this measure. A fair discussion on its merits could not be expected: it is an axiom with the National party that no good thing can come from Balfour, and the English Home-Rulers act on the principle of voting with the Irish party on all purely Irish questions. The arguments against the bill were consequently of a mixed and contradictory character. The policy of State-aided land purchase is one which all classes in Ireland, except Michael Davitt and a small following, look to and desire as a final settlement of the land war. Since 1880 both of the great English political parties have, when in power, brought in sweeping measures of this kind, and each party in opposition makes very much the same objections against measures brought in by its opponents.

Except so far as speakers are prepared to eat their own words or renounce the views formerly held by their party, the only reasonable argument, from an Irish point of view, against a large or wholesale expropriation of landlords is, that no such measure can be fairly worked while coercion exists and Balfour reigns; tenants and Nationalists cannot be represented on the Land Board, and administration of the measure will neither seem nor be fair. Against the details of Balfour's measure many sound objections may be urged, as they may be against any and every measure of reform; but it is the business of the politician, the philosopher in action, to decide how much of an evil ought to be tolerated, and to set aside those arguments of the speculative philosopher which, if regarded, would prevent any theory being reduced to practice.

The bill proposes to advance 165 million dollars to enable tenants to buy from their landlords, who are to be paid in stock bearing 2.75 per cent. interest, while the tenants are to repay the loan by forty-nine-year annuities of 4 per cent. Both English parties agree in laying down the principle that the British (as distinguished from the Irish) taxpayer is to incur no loss and to run no risk. A large part of the discussion turns upon this point, which is obscured by the complicated nature of the scheme and the multiplicity of guarantees provided. Part of the price, usually one-fifth, payable to the landlord, is to be retained by the Land Board for seventeen years, the interest only being paid to the landlord, while the principal may be applied to make good the default of a borrower. Certain contributions in aid of local taxation from the imperial revenue, now applicable for charitable and educational purposes, are to be withheld annually to the extent to which any loss is incurred by default in

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repayment of loans; the Lord-Lieutenant is also empowered to require a special county rate to be struck to make such losses good. Tenant purchasers are, for the first five years of their term, to pay a larger amount than their normal annuity, and so to provide a special insurance fund, for which, if not drawn upon, credit will be given at the end of the forty-nine year term. Lastly, there is an allocation of a reversion to a possible residue from funds formerly belonging to the Irish Church.

This part of the bill is so complicated that Balfour's followers have to take upon faith his estimate of the effective value of the guarantee deposits, the tenants' insurance fund, the reserve fund, the contingent guarantee, the special county rate, and the Church reversion. The collection of some of these funds must precede their application, and may not be so easy in practice as on paper. The withholding of funds to which Irish localities are now entitled for education of the poor, for the care and support of pauper lunatics, and other similar purposes, may not be ratified by future Parliaments. The principle of seizing such funds without the consent of the interested localities, and applying them to the payment of debts contracted by tenant farmers, is evidently open to grave objections on constitutional grounds.

Except from a mistaken sense of loyalty to their Liberal allies, it is not clear upon what grounds Irish members allow the British-taxpayer argument to pass unchallenged. If the expropriation of the Irish landlords is a matter of imperial interest, and to be settled by the imperial Parliament, is it not the concern of the British as well as the Irish taxpayer? Has the British taxpayer no responsibility for peace in Ireland? has he no responsibility for the deadlock which necessitates such a law? Is it not cheaper for him to risk and perhaps lose a small amount of capital in quieting the land war than to spend annually large sums in keeping up the existing system, in maintaining armies of soldiers and police in Ireland to collect rents and carry out evictions, and numerous special courts to control and regulate irreconcilable relations? When the British-taxpayer argument is brought out against such a measure as this, the Irishman may surely ask whether he does not pay heavily for royalty whose face he never sees; for London parks, museums, and institutions from which he derives no benefit; for wars waged all over the world in purely British interest, in which he has no concern. Ireland pays her share, and more than her share, for all these.

There is another aspect of these guarantees which has not educed observation. Every special provision for paying debts or losses which may arise under this scheme otherwise than out of the debtor's estate, and by making him a bankrupt and distributing the loss among his creditors (the whole body of taxpayers), weakens the motive for repayment, encourages the borrower to plead inability or poverty, diminishes his sense of responsibility, and impairs the value of the primary security, the land and its efficient cultivation. The bill provides what the tenant calls "back doors." Both the Land Board and the Lord-Lieutenant are empowered, under certain circumstances, to suspend collection of annuities and sales of defaulters' farms, and so to occasion the loss which is to be made good at the expense of other and more helpless classes.

The objection made by Parnell that the funds provided would only enable one tenant out of five to buy his farm and one landlord out of ten to sell his estate, and that therefore the money available would be better applied by loaning it to landlords at low interest to pay off encumbrances, requiring them in return to reduce their rents, seems weak. If the money is repaid, there is no reason why more should not be provided, and Parnell's proposal would leave the landlord-and-tenant system still as the universal rule of tenure. That part of the bill which deals with the congested districts in the West, and creates a special semi-charitable board with power to encourage emigration, migration, to develop local industries, is no doubt conceived in a benevolent though mistaken spirit. As John Dillon, in an admirable speech, pointed out, the inclusion of the vast tracts which have been converted into ranches is necessary to the treatment of the overcrowded spots, the agricultural slums in their midst. Balfour's proposals under this head indicate the usual complete and self-satisfied ignorance of English politicians of the problems which have to be solved in Ireland. An English born and bred statesman who has not spent thirty days consecutively in Ireland, advised by Castle officials whose acquaintance with the West may consist of an occasional fishing or shooting holiday, undertakes, in a contemptuously benevolent spirit, to legislate for the benefit of a population of whose life, habits, wishes, and wants he is completely ignorant.

The Land Bill will not go into Committee until the Government have got through their English Tithe Bill, a difficult and opposed measure. This will lead to a late consideration of the Land Bill, to the exclusion of discussion and amendments, to the application of the closure, and the passage for Ireland of another law on which the Irish members will not have been permitted to state fully their views, or urge the modifications which they, from their better knowledge of facts, would wish to urge on the Government. Amendments with the object of nullifying and spoiling the bill will no doubt be brought forward, but the leaders of the English Liberals, feeling that the responsibility for administering the act will soon be cast upon them, will no doubt do their best, if allowed, in no factious spirit to improve and make effective the crude and complicated provisions which Mr. Balfour proposes to impose on us.

In Ireland, so far as the views of the two classes, tenants and landlords, can be discerned and stated in general terms, I should say that the tenants approve of this as they would of any measure which gives them an opportunity of becoming owners on terms which will be easier to them than remaining as tenants. Until the grant is exhausted, every tenant is potentially a recipient of part of the loan. On the other hand, tenants approve of their members' opposition, which amounts, if successful, to a promise to do better things for them, or at worst to improving the bill in their interests. If passed, the law will not put tenants in a worse position than at present, and gives every farmer an opportunity of bettering his position. The landlords, while they complain that they are to be paid in a stock below par value, and that they are only to receive four-fifths of the value of their estates in this stock, the remaining one-fifth being locked up for seventeen years with a lien on it for any default of the purchaser, are satisfied at having an opportunity of selling, and at the administration as well as the framing of the measure being in the hands of their political friends.

In short, though the law will be thrust upon Ireland without the consent of the people, it directly injures nobody, and may benefit a very considerable number of persons. The solicitors, an interested, compact, and powerful class, are in favor of the bill. The profits of carrying out these sales are large; and in the process of creating a vast number of small estates a foundation is laid for future profitable litigation, and an opportunity offered to secure a new body of clients in place of the landlords, whose estates have for many years almost ceased to pay tribute to that part of the legal profession which occupied itself with sales of and loans upon land. AN IRISHMAN.

RENAN'S 'FUTURE OF SCIENCE.'

PARIS, May 2, 1890.

THE list of the works of Ernest Renan is getting very long. Here is a new volume with the catching title, 'The Future of Science'; but, as a sub-title, I read, 'Thoughts in 1848.' So the book is but a reprint of some articles written after the Revolution of 1848, in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, in a forgotten and extinct review which was called *La Liberté de Penser*, and in the *Journal des Débats*. Renan gives in a long Preface the genesis of these articles. The Revolution of 1848 made a great impression on him; he had never until then paid any attention to Socialist problems, and had lived entirely absorbed in academical studies. 'The Future of Science' was originally intended as a whole, and was announced as such in the *Liberté de Penser*, where the first fragments appeared. The friends of M. Renan in the office of the *Revue des Deux Mondes* and of the *Journal des Débats* advised him to cut it in pieces—not to throw such a heavy stone in the pond of literature. He kept his manuscript, and doled it out in parts at various times. Now we have the whole of it, but we are not clearly told how much the original manuscript has been changed. It was often abandoned: Renan had to write his 'Origins of Christianity,' which absorbed nearly all his time.

He says he expected that his manuscript would be published after his death, but, "finding that his life prolongs itself more than he had supposed," he has decided to become his own publisher. The Renan of forty years ago is presented to us by the Renan of to-day. "In my writings destined for people of the world," he says, "I have been obliged to make many sacrifices to what is called in France taste (*le goût*). Here will be found, without any adornment, the little conscientious Briton who one day fled alarmed from Saint-Sulpice because he thought he perceived that a part of what his masters had taught him was perhaps not wholly true."

The art of composition was unknown to Renan when he wrote these first voluminous essays. He confesses also that, on some points, his opinions have changed; he believed too much in 1848 in the Socialist ideas of that period. He does not now believe that a civilization can be founded entirely on the idea of equality. It is clear that Darwinism has had its influence with him. "Inequality," he says, "is written in nature; it is the consequence of liberty, and the liberty of the individual is a necessary postulate of human progress. The present state of humanity, for instance, necessitates the maintenance of nations, and nations are very heavy establishments to carry. A state which should give the greatest possible amount of happiness to the individual would probably be, in view of the noble pursuits of humanity, a state of profound abasement."

You will recognize here what I might call the antinomical state of mind of Renan: he always corrects one affirmation by an almost contrary affirmation. He has arrived at a

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curious sort of scepticism, very different from the light scepticism of old times. His is a sort of sentimental scepticism; he knows that what he loves must perish, but he loves it still. He knows that provincialism is narrow, and that it must disappear when the province is merged in the nation; still he loves provincialism. He knows that patriotism is a narrow form of the love of humanity, that it is prejudiced, that it can be cruel and unjust; still he can be patriotic at times. His unmerciful exegesis has destroyed the foundations of faith; still he loves the faithful and their simplicity of heart. He looks upon the legends of the saints as mere phantoms of the imagination, but nobody can speak of the saints with a more childlike affection.

The sentimental scepticism of Renan is becoming more and more marked; he has ceased to be dogmatic, as he was in the days of his youth; he has become more and more sceptical.

"There is," he says, "an error in these old pages, an exaggerated optimism which cannot see that evil still exists, and that we must pay dearly—that is to say, we must pay in privileges—for the power which protects us against evil. You will find in it also an old remnant of Catholicism, the idea that we shall again see ages of faith, ages in which there will be an universal and obligatory faith, as in the first part of the Middle Ages. May God preserve us from such a salvation! The unity of belief, that is to say, fanaticism, would only reappear in the world with the ignorance and the credulity of ancient days. I prefer an immoral people to a fanatical people; for immoral masses are not vexatious, while fanatical masses stupefy the world, and a stupid world ceases to interest me. I prefer to see it die. Suppose that the orange trees had a malady of which they could only be cured by ceasing to produce oranges; it would not be worth while, for the orange tree which yields no oranges is good for nothing."

In passing himself, so to speak, in review in these pages written in his youth, Renan has tried to make a sort of reckoning of what was real in his early hopes, and what was chimerical. He thinks that, on the whole, he was right, and that progress is going on on the lines which he then traced. He did not, to be sure, take sufficient account of the inequality of the traces, but, though he was not a naturalist, he understood the origin of life. "I saw well . . . that a creation has no place in the series of causes and effects. Unable to follow the ways of life in their labyrinth, I was a decided evolutionist in whatever concerns the products of humanity — language, writing, literature, legislation, social forms." Renan was only walking, in philology, in the footsteps of the Germans and of his illustrious French master Eurnouf. He has hardly the right to consider himself as a precursor of Darwin because he believed in the *Werden* of Hegel and in the transformation of human idioms.

He has come now to a state which, if it is not the Indian Nirvana, approaches it. He confesses that he was wrong when, as did Hegel, he attributed to humanity a central part in the universe. "It may be," he says, "that all the development of humanity is of no more consequence than the moss or the lichen which envelops any moist surface." You will remark this form of language—"It may be"; nothing is really affirmed any more by Renan, nothing is worth an affirmation. After the strophe comes immediately, as in the Greek chorus, the antistrophe. As soon as he has said that humanity is no better than a bit of moss, he adds: "For us, however, the history of man keeps its primacy, since humanity alone, as far as we know, creates the conscience of the universe."

The historical and the philological sciences have made much progress since Renan began to interest himself in them; but he sees the end of their efforts approaching. In a century, he says, humanity will know all it wants to know about its past; "and then it will be time to stop." Is it really so? Has not history renewed itself in every age? It is true that the modern historical method is founded entirely on the publication of original documents. When once these documents are all published, you cannot add much to local, individual, or even national history; you can criticise and interpret the documents with more accuracy. With or without documents, history will persist in creating legends, and these legends become immortal. We read history, on the whole, as we read a novel: we want to find human characters, human passions. This is the reason why it is so difficult to give life to the history of parliamentary government: the interest becomes too diffused, the central figures are too rare. Who will care—I do not say in a hundred years—in ten years for our parties and their groups? The human mind is so made that it requires what we call great men, and the study of great men will always be interesting, and in one sense new.

The history of religions has been the favorite study of Renan. "It has become clear," he says, "not by a-priori reasoning, but by the discussion of the so-called evidence, that never in the centuries known to man has there been any revelation, any supernatural fact." With these few words he disposes of the whole subject, in the review of sciences which I am analyzing. As for the social and political sciences, he finds that their progress in forty years has been slow. "The old political economy, which had such pretensions in 1848, has been a failure." It is true that free trade has ceased to be considered as a sort of religion, that the formulas of political economy have become less dogmatic; still no country will ever repent accommodating its policy, as much as is convenient and possible, to the acknowledged laws of political economy. France will probably have to repeal the narrow protectionist policy which it has adopted at the dictation of small local interests; the interference of the State in the management of railways and their tariffs will everywhere have deplorable consequences. The relations of capital and labor, if they were left entirely free, would naturally adjust themselves to circumstances and necessities; in this respect, the abandonment of the principles of political economy has created an immense danger. Renan complains that Socialism is perturbing the world, though it offers no clear solution of any problem. "What seems probable," he says, "is that Socialism will not come to an end." He hopes that it will be with Socialism as it was with early Christianity—that it will transform itself; that it will become very different from the destructive Socialism of 1848. There is not much hope of such a transformation at present.

Renan complains, also, that in the political field we have not made much progress. "The situation is not clear. The national principle has taken since 1848 an extraordinary development. There are evident signs of the fatigue caused by the national burdens." It is quite true that the principle of nationalities, which in 1848 appeared as a principle of progress and deliverance, has produced very unexpected effects: the nations are all in arms, and the equilibrium of Europe has become more uncertain. Renan prophesies that

"fifty years hence the national principle will be at a discount. . . . It has become very apparent that the happiness of the individual is not in proportion to the greatness of the nation to which he belongs. . . . How long will the national spirit triumph over the egoism of the individual? Who will, after some centuries, have served humanity better, the patriot, the liberal, the reactionary, the Socialist? Nobody knows; still it would be important to know, for what is good on one hypothesis is bad on another. According to the end which is to be attained, what France does, for instance, is excellent or detestable. The other nations have no more light. The field of politics is like a desert through which they march, by chance, north or south, for march they must. Nobody knows, in the social order, where the good lies. The consolation is, that we necessarily arrive somewhere. Good men will thus always have their conscience at rest."

Was I wrong when I said that Renan has reached a state of universal scepticism which approaches the Indian Nirvana? He speaks as if the world were a sort of a dream; he has remained an idealist, though he has ceased to be a Christian—vulgar epicureanism is repugnant to him; he is afraid that "a real debasement of humanity would follow the day when it saw the reality of things." The Positivist school will never have a right to claim him as a disciple, though he professes the greatest admiration for science. He speaks his inner thought when he says that "science preserves us from error rather than gives us the truth." I have spoken at some length of this singular confession of faith, which is a confession of death. The Preface of the work has seemed to me more interesting than the work itself.

Correspondence.

THE KENTUCKY SENATORSHIP.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The delay in the election of Mr. Carlisle to fill the vacancy caused by the death of Senator Beck has furnished a crumb of comfort to the opponents of tariff reduction. It may, therefore, be interesting to those who, in the absence of some more substantial consolation, are compelled to lean upon this, to show how entirely the incident has been misinterpreted. Let them consider the following facts:

(1.) Throughout the State there are many men, thoroughly devoted to the cause of revenue reform, who earnestly wished Mr. Carlisle to retain his present position in the House, in the full confidence that he would be its next Speaker, a position for which he is so eminently fitted. The fact that Mr. Carlisle himself desired to go to the Senate weighed with them but little. Their feeling can be compared—though, of course, it is less intense—with that of an English Liberal, were Mr. Gladstone anxious to be raised to the peerage. In the American Senate, as (though much more decidedly) in the British House of Lords, the party of progressive ideas seems for some time doomed to a hopeless minority; does it not, therefore, seem a pity that a man of Mr. Carlisle's ability should be forced to waste his strength before a hostile assembly? And, furthermore, the House, in which revenue bills originate, is preëminently the place for a man whose chief prominence comes from his position on such matters.

(2.) Such being the opinion of many of Mr. Carlisle's warmest admirers, the personal friends of the other candidates felt that they had some reason for passing over the ex-Speaker. It was in their eyes made the wiser by the high character of some of the other candidates. It has been, for example, long known that Judge William Lindsay of Frankfort, a man of great ability and wide culture, was desirous of be-

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coming Senator; here, then, was the chance to keep Kentucky's lead in the House, and at the same time to send to the Senate a gentleman well fitted to take a prominent place in that body. As far as the tariff is concerned, every one of the opposing candidates stands squarely with Mr. Carlisle; nor would any man dare to go before a Democratic caucus in this State who questioned the soundness of his party's position on this issue of supreme importance.

(3.) It must be remembered, too, that the Senatorial race was precipitated upon the Legislature without a moment's warning. Mr. Beck was stricken while attending to his regular duties; his health had been apparently no worse than for many months previous. A Legislature chosen without regard to the Senatorial succession is suddenly called upon to fill his place; is it strange that personal considerations, in some cases genuine, perhaps in others less commendable, for a while prevailed? The sentiment of the State had had no opportunity to crystallize; in real truth it did crystallize with remarkable rapidity. Whatever, indeed, the causes which hindered Mr. Carlisle's nomination, the result showed that the opposition to it was neither political nor representative—not political, because his course was not even questioned; not representative, because, with complete spontaneity, the demand for his nomination arose from the entire State. There was no wire-pulling, there was no artificial enthusiasm. At almost every ballot some member announced his change to the Speaker in response to the urgent pressure of his constituency; others admitted the pressure, while still maintaining that they could not honorably change front. But, whatever may have been the motives that actuated those opposed to him, the fact stands out clearly that his nomination was eventually made because the Legislature read in every quarter the unmistakable will of the people that Mr. Carlisle be allowed to choose his own career. From the first ballot his friends maintained their ranks without effort; his opponents were never sure. The delay in his nomination may or may not be creditable to the Legislature, as a whole; but no one who understands it can for a moment believe that it shows anything but complete confidence both in Mr. Carlisle personally, and in the cause with which he is honorably identified. A. F.

Louisville, Ky., May 17, 1890.

CLERGYMEN AND BOOK PIRACY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: With regard to clergymen and book piracy, may not the circulars they receive be explained on the ground that publishers bank on their ignorance of public questions? This is a more charitable and, I think, a more reasonable view than that they "let the cheapness of the coveted goods blind their eyes to the criminality" of the transaction. The large majority of ministers lead provincial lives, read provincial papers, and know little of public questions. Receiving a circular of the kind indicated, they consider only the question of cheapness, and think nothing of copyright in the matter. Better-informed ministers usually throw the circulars in the waste-basket. The writer did differently the other day. He wanted the 'Britannica' and had never been able to buy it. The circular came from such a reputable house that the presumption was in favor of some arrangement having been made. So he filled up the acceptance blank, writing upon it, "*provided the rights of the publishers have not been infringed.*" He has not heard of it since. P. H. H.

Wilmington, N. C., May 17, 1890.

EXCAVATIONS IN ITALY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I see in the excellent letter of Mr. Goddard in the *Nation* of April 24 a repetition of the statement which I have several times contradicted, that the excavation of antique sites in Italy is "kept in native hands." It is simply kept under official supervision. To obtain a permit to excavate, one must apply to the Department of Public Instruction, and excavation can only be carried on under the supervision of a competent employee of the Ministry. Certain sites of historical importance are reserved for official excavation, but beyond these there is no difficulty in getting permission to dig anywhere in the kingdom, and the Government only claims the prior right to purchase objects needed to fill gaps in its own collections—a right rarely asserted lately. The Italian collections are increasing faster than the Ministry can find accommodations for them, and it is especially desirous to facilitate the work of foreign museums or societies; but, naturally, as to individuals, it will exercise its judgment as to the competence and responsibility of the applicants, and grant or refuse accordingly.

Yours truly, W. J. Stillman.

Rome, May 7, 1890.

MR. DOLE'S TRANSLATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your criticism of my translation of 'La Hermana San Sulpicio,' I am charged, among other things, with ignorance of the slang phrase *pelar la pava*, the meaning of which is made perfectly clear when used in the text. But *Con perdón de ustedes, pelo la pava* is a chapter heading! A literal translation would have been nonsensical, and I know of no corresponding English expression. I took what seemed to me a justifiable liberty, and simply renamed the chapter, which was certainly not "a desperate drive at the idiom"!

Less justifiable, perhaps, were similar proceedings in the text for various reasons; such, for instance, as the one quoted, "clog-dancing" for *pisotones en los callos*. My chief desire was to make the book readable in English, though it was hopeless to reproduce the peculiar flavor of the original, which has page upon page of piquant dialect. It seems to me that in such a story a translator has the right to employ a considerable degree of latitude.

I am, etc., Nathan Haskell Dole.

"Hedgecote," Glen Road, Jamaica Plain, Boston, May 17, 1890.

Notes.

Henry Holt & Co. will hereafter be the publishers of 'A Japanese Boy,' by himself, which we lately had occasion to praise.

Robert Bonner's Sons issue directly 'Five Years with the Congo Cannibals,' by Herbert Ward.

W. H. Anderson, 222 East Broad Street, Richmond, Va., is preparing a book of negro authors, with an account of their lives and writings.

N. D. C. Hodges, 47 Lafayette Place, New York, has begun the issue of a series of popular scientific works, under the general title of "Fact and Theory Papers." The scheme even includes an essay on the true scope of a Shakspere Society, 'Society and the Fad,' by Appleton Morgan.

John Wiley & Sons have in preparation 'Least Squares,' by Prof. W. W. Johnson of the U. S. Naval Academy.

'The Riversons,' a novel of Pennsylvania life in the forties, by S. J. Bumstead; 'One of "Berrian's" Novels,' by Mrs. C. H. Stone; 'The Bank Tragedy,' by Mary R. P. Hatch; and two books of travel, 'From Yellowstone Park to Alaska,' and 'From the Land of the Midnight Sun to the Volga,' by Francis C. Sessions, are in the press of Welch, Fracker Co.

The fourth of Mr. W. M. Griswold's Cumulative Indexes is an author and subject Index to the chief German periodicals and to sundry collections ('Autoren- und Sachregister zu den bedeutendsten Deutschen Zeitschriften, 1886-1889,' etc. Cambridge, Mass.: W. M. Griswold). A convenient list of writers precedes the index proper, of which the plan resembles that of its predecessors. There appears to be a slip in the pagination of the Autoren-Verzeichniss, page x being succeeded by pages 3–12.

Mr. Gustav Kobbé, who has given us the best guide-book to the New Jersey Coast, now takes up the belt of the same State traversed by the Central Railroad, and makes a neat hand-book in every respect fitted for the tourist, with abundant information respecting local history, scenery, and hotels. It is entitled 'The Central Railroad of New Jersey,' and is published by the editor himself at No. 251 Broadway. Numerous illustrations and convenient map-sections accompany the text. Mr. Kobbé has also conferred a boon on those who drive or walk for pleasure by issuing excellent pocket suburban road-maps, viz., of Central and Northern New Jersey, the Jersey Coast, Long Island, and Westchester County, N. Y., with part of Fairfield County, Conn. They are very clearly and neatly executed.

By far the best series of guide-books yet produced in this country (and better will not soon be seen) are those which have borne successively the names of Osgood's and Ticknor's, and, now that they have become the property of Houghton, Mifflin & Co., are henceforth fitly to be known as Sweetser's, Mr. M. F. Sweetser being the editor. We have just received the tenth edition of the 'White Mountains,' the twelfth of the 'New England,' and the seventh of the 'Maritime Provinces,' the most indispensable of all. Collectively, they have no rivals.

The same firm send us the current edition of their 'Satchel Guide for the Vacation Tourist in Europe.' It has a well-established usefulness, after nearly twenty years of vogue.

From J. W. Bouton we receive the illustrated catalogue of the Paris Salon now exhibiting in the Champs-Élysées. There are, to judge from these memoranda, few striking works of the imagination, and only here and there is there a suggestion of a striking landscape. Portraits seem more than commonly abundant. Meissonier and his colleagues in the secession are of course wanting in this catalogue.

The artistic side of the great French Exposition of last year is subordinated in Henri de Parville's 'L'Exposition Universelle' (Paris: J. Rothschild; New York: F. W. Christern). The compact little volume of 700 pages forms, in fact, part of this well-known writer's 'Causeries Scientifiques.' He has undertaken to produce a handy and readable summary of the Exposition regarded as an organism, with a wealth of statistics which can hardly be sought elsewhere, and with the most apt and interesting illustrations, averaging one to a page. It would be easy to expatiate on this

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remarkable record, which recommends itself especially to architects, builders, and engineers, and to boards of public works, but which also should be prized as a souvenir by every one who visited the Exposition. That it should find a place in every public library is a matter of course.

Mr. Keltie, the editor of the 'Statesman's Year-Book' (Macmillan), has boldly reconstructed it in a way which will meet with universal approval. In the first place, Great Britain and its dependencies are grouped by themselves at the beginning of the work, after which the rest of the world follows in alphabetical order for the first time, with the general exception that colonies are bracketed with the mother country. To what an extent Africa is dismembered in consequence will appear when we say that Abyssinia must be sought under Italy. The effort is made to embrace pretty nearly the whole of the earth's surface, so that the 'Year-Book' has more than ever the character and value of a gazetteer. We feel that a friendly coöperation might improve the lists of non-official publications regarding each country which has been a feature of the 'Year-Book' from the beginning. (It is now in its twenty-seventh year.)

'Appletons' Annual Cyclopædia' for 1889, being vol. xiv of the new series, has also made its appearance, and presents the usual features. The index embraces this and the preceding volume. The Pope, Stanley, Robert Browning, and Ericsson are the subjects of full-paged portraiture. A folded colored plan of the Paris Exposition accompanies the article on that head. The Congressional summary, geographical progress and discovery, financial and fine-art reviews, irrigation, registry laws, are some of the leading rubrics. The several States and countries and religious denominations receive the customary attention.

Six members of the revisionist majority of the New York Presbytery, with Professor Evans of Lane Theological Seminary, contribute papers to a little volume called 'How Shall We Revise?' (Scribners). It is at once the last gun from the hosts of revision before the meeting of the Assembly, and a signal-shot in honor of a victory already won. Professor Evans carries his witty flings at the opponents of revision to a length which will doubtless seem to them highly disrespectful; but the man who gives them the roughest handling, without any joking about it, is, as usual, Professor Briggs. The most valuable of his three contributions is his "The Confession Tested by Scripture," in which, with the help of an appendix setting forth the exact proof-texts used by the Westminster divines, he shows how faulty and partial their exegesis was.

An English translation of Professor Mantegazza's 'Physiognomy and Expression,' which has existed in Italian and French versions for half-a-dozen years, is issued by Scribner & Welford. It contains within the compass of about 300 pages a good deal of curious information regarding a department of human inquiry which is just beginning to assume a scientific aspect, and the appendix contains a number of plates of astrological, morphological and æsthetic types, etc. For some obscure reason, fantastic and absurd generalizations regarding the emotional and intellectual meaning of certain varieties of features have always possessed a greater interest for the public at large than real scientific deductions. Thus a silly article on the meaning of blue, black, and gray eyes or different kinds of ears is sure to be copied by all the newspapers, while Darwin's fascinating researches in this field are known only to a few special students. Mantegazza takes note of the most important historic vagaries as well as of the latest scientific researches, and in the departments of anthropology and national psychic traits he adds some valuable remarks of his own. On the whole, however, the work is a compilation rather than one of original research; but it will be found entertaining in spite of a certain diffuseness of style.

The 'Samaritan Chronicle' was edited in 1848 by Juynboll, who published the Arabic text (from the Scaliger MS.) with Latin translation, notes, and introductory dissertation. Up to this time there has been no English translation of the work, and Mr. O. T. Crane has done good service in putting it into English and presenting it in convenient form to the general reader (New York: John B. Alden). Juynboll had only one MS. before him. Mr. Crane states in his preface that, while following the Arabic text of the Dutch scholar, he has in many cases consulted a MS. in the British Museum, and has thus been led occasionally to depart from the Latin translation. He has added a number of useful notes at the end of the book. The 'Chronicle' belongs probably to the thirteenth or fourteenth century of our era, and contains a good deal of geographical and historical material belonging to the ideas of that time. It furnishes material also for the history of development of legend in the first 1,300 years of our era. The book is regarded by the Samaritans as an authentic history, though not divinely inspired.

Under the title 'Notes on the Hebrew Text of the Books of Samuel' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan), Dr. S. R. Driver, Regius Professor of Hebrew, gives us a timely and valuable textual and grammatical commentary on one of the most interesting of the Old Testament historical books. Availing himself freely of the investigations of his predecessors, especially Thenius and Wellhausen, he everywhere carefully criticises their works, contributes his own material, and uses his own judgment. His commentary is a thesaurus of grammatical and textual studies, the fullest and best guide in any language for one who wishes to go into a careful examination of Samuel. The introduction treats briefly but satisfactorily of the early history of the Hebrew alphabet, early Hebrew orthography, the chief ancient versions of the Old Testament, and the characteristics of the chief ancient versions of Samuel. There are facsimiles of the Siloam inscription, the Carpentras stele, an Egyptian Aramaic papyrus, and the inscription of Tabnith, King of Sidon, and a translation and discussion of the inscription of Mesha, King of Moab.

Their Eighteenth Report makes a very creditable showing for the Commissioners of Fisheries of the State of New York. It is a record of activity and good results. Among the first three hundred pages, on the work of the Commission, we find a couple of illustrated papers of scientific importance, viz., that of Prof. Bashford Dean, 'On the Supposed Fish-eating Plant, Utricularia,' and Commissioner Fred. Mather's more extensive work on 'Adirondack Fishes,' with two new species of suckers, Catostomus. It is well that the Adirondacks are receiving so much attention—the earlier the better. In an appendix of a hundred and thirty-five pages are given the laws of the State in general and of the counties in particular, so far as they relate to fish and game.

The Commissioners of the State Reservation at Niagara have done well in printing in their Sixth Annual Report a popular statement of the history of the Niagara River, by G. K. Gilbert of the United States Geological Survey. Too many of even the intelligent visitors to Niagara see only the Falls, and fail to apprehend their meaning; if they would give half-an-hour to reading over this geographical story (and it ought to be on sale at Niagara), their interest in the great cataract would be wonderfully increased. Mr. Gilbert illustrates some of the more important stages in the history of the Great Lakes, closely connected with the history of Niagara, by several hypothetical outlines of the great bodies of water that stood over the northern country when it was more or less tilted from its present attitude, and when the present river outlets were blocked by the retreating ice of the glacial period. The essay closes with a consideration of the conditions that may have determined a variation in the rate of recession of the Falls as they worked their way back from the plateau front through the gorge to their present position.

Dr. Siegmund Günther, professor at the Technical High School in Munich, has prepared a brief treatise on meteorology in its modern aspects with especial reference to geographical questions (Munich: Ackermann). Like his other works, this is a studious production, with many references to original memoirs by various authors; Dr. Günther's forte seeming to be rather a high quality of compilation than an originality in research. Like many German text-books, this one is marked by a serious style, with little that is devised to awaken the interest or to diminish the difficulties of the scholar, and with absolutely no padding. Such a book is sufficient for the student who desires to learn and asks only that opportunity be allowed him.

Dr. Hann of Vienna announced the following conclusions, derived from his recent meteorological studies, at the meeting of the Vienna Academy on April 17. Areas of low and high pressure, commonly known as cyclonic and anticyclonic areas on our weather maps, are the product of the general circulation of the atmosphere, which in turn arises from the difference between equatorial and polar temperatures. Cyclones and anticyclones possess ascending and descending components of motion respectively; but these are not produced by local differences of temperature, such as are commonly assumed by the convectional theory of cyclones, generally current. The convectional theory requires that cyclones should be as a whole masses of warm air, while anticyclones should be cold. The reverse appears to be the fact: cyclones are cold and anticyclones are warm. These temperatures are the product of the vertical components of motion, and not vice-versa. In reaching these results Dr. Hann made use of the records from the Alpine high-level observatories.

The *Dramatic Mirror Quarterly*, edited by Harrison Gray Fiske, and published at No. 145 Fifth Avenue, has just been started, bearing the date of June, 1890. It consists of original signed papers on the actor's art, plus a dramatic diary.

Prof. William James of Harvard College has been appointed census-taker of hallucinations in America, on behalf of the Society for Psychical Research. The aim is to accumulate a mass of facts, and also to discover how large a proportion of persons have had experience of hallucinations. The question put is, "Have you ever, when completely awake, had a vivid impression of seeing or being touched by a living being or inanimate object, or of hearing a voice; which impression, so far as you could

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discover, was not due to any external physical cause?" A negative answer will be valued as much as an affirmative. Prof. James will furnish blanks to canvassers who would like to assist him.

—The twenty-second volume of Leslie Stephen's 'Dictionary of National Biography' (Macmillan) runs from Glover to Gravet. The editor has reserved for himself William and Mary Godwin, Goldsmith, and Lord George Gordon, "agitator"; and these sketches are all excellent examples of the writer's unsurpassed faculty for this sort of writing. Other noticeable sketches are those of Chinese Gordon (7 pp.), Grattan (8 pp.), and Graham of Claverhouse (16 pp.). Under Sir James Graham, we read, apropos of the scandal caused by the Home Secretary's opening the correspondence of the refugee Italian patriots, that "the power still remains in the hands" of that official, though "Graham's case is likely to be a lesson enforcing prudence." And while we are speaking of Grahams, let us note the omission of James Grahame, one of the most approved historians of the United States down to the inception of the republic, as well as author of other works. Not a few early American worthies turn up in this volume—Ferdinando Gorges, Bartholomew Gosnold, Goffe, the regicide, and his estimable friend Daniel Gookin, with the problematic Samuel Gorton. The Rev. Morgan Godwin, who preached in Virginia under Gov. Berkeley, was a zealous friend of the negro and the Indian. Thomas Godfrey, born in Philadelphia, produced the first play written in America. John B. Gough rose to the head of temperance orators here as well as in his native Britain. Mr. Edmund Gosse writes the sketch of his father, Philip Henry Gosse, who married Miss Emily Bowes, of New England parentage. Mrs. Anne Grant, author of the 'Memoirs of an American Lady,' passed her girlhood with the Schuylers as their protégée. Lewis Gompertz, the originator of societies for the prevention of cruelty to animals, and Sir Daniel Gooch, who had a hand in the beginnings of railways, tunnels, telegraphic cables, and even the *Great Eastern*, are the most conspicuous of the pioneers recorded in the present volume.

— Mr. Andrew Lang, a few years ago, made in his 'Custom and Myth' an exposition of his very sensible theory that a better explanation of many myths is likely to be found in the existing customs and beliefs of savages than is always to be had from the speculations and moral consciousness of too cultivated folklorists. A doctrine analogous to this applied to history is set forth in a recent article on the French Sudan in the *Nouvelle Revue*. The writer, Captain Péroz, takes for his text a remark of Dr. Béranger-Féraud's about the tribes of Senegambia, among which he has lived. The latter says that, in meditating upon their rudimentary social organization, he has often asked himself whether he was not contemplating a state of things that closely resembles the life led in times past by his own ancestors, the Gauls and the Franks. At last he became so entirely persuaded of the truth of this view that he puts it forth unconditionally: "The historian of our day," he says, "may see unrolled before his eyes in these countries a course of things which has not been seen for centuries in our own." Captain Péroz accepts this view, which he thinks may be widened so as to include all the conditions of life and society, men as well as things, the soil as well as its products. He sees much corroboration of it in his own experiences in the French Sudan, where at times it seemed to him as if he were really living in prehistoric Gaul.

—M. Auguste Marcade, who writes of Captain Péroz's article in the *Figaro* of April 12, says that it finds valuable and unexpected support in a learned and curious study on 'Les Curés avant 1789,' contributed to the *Correspondant* by the Abbé Sicard. The Abbé explains the rise of country villages, of which there were very few in France before the tenth century, by the impulse given to monasticism by the Benedictine Reform. The monks went out everywhere into waste places in the country, and built oratories, and lived by agriculture. These monastic chapels developed in the course of time into parish churches as the scattered inhabitants of the country gathered more and more around the monasteries, and villages were formed. It is well known that Cardinal Lavigerie hopes and expects that some such results may come from his missions in Northern and Central Africa; and the work of some of the English missionaries in the Eastern Equatorial region has, we believe, been directed towards the same end. There are grounds for hope that missionary work of this sort may leave more lasting traces than did an old-fashioned kind, which sometimes began and ended in the administration of the sacrament of baptism to savages who knew not a word of the missionary's language, nor he of theirs.

— Those who have been interested in the periodical *Artistic Japan*, which has been noticed in previous numbers of the *Nation*, will find pleasure of a kindred sort in the new publication which comes to us from Japan itself. The name of this appears to be simply *Ko-ka*, which is translated as 'Flowers of the Country.' The price is named as $10 a year, or $1.00 for each monthly part, but we are not informed whether any New York agent will undertake the delivery of the numbers at that price. Three of these numbers have reached our table. The text is entirely in Japanese; the improvement of an added text in some European language is yet to come. Each number contains either five or six full-page illustrations, the page being nine by fifteen inches, if we do not count that unavailable part of the margin which is taken up by the knotting with silk in the Japanese fashion. Of these illustrations, some are photographic reproductions of ancient paintings, and these are extremely well rendered. Only those who have tried to get good photographs here in New York of Japanese kakemonos and the like will understand how difficult this is. Even the one in which a painting on silk of a Buddhist subject, apparently of great antiquity, is imitated, has come out satisfactorily. The distinction between the transparent painting, through which the threads of the material show, and the loaded painting of the faces and some parts of the costume, is evident enough, and it is evident that the quality of the whole, apart from its color, is as well given as there is any hope of in such reproductions. Other plates are photogravures from the objects themselves, as, for instance, the interior of what we take to be the temple at Nara, with special attention given to the elaborate timber roof, to show which the photograph has been distorted in a curious fashion, reminding one of those photographs of Gothic vaults in Europe which have been taken specially for architectural study. Others again are in color, and here photography does not appear, except that it may have been used to assure correct drawing, the plate having apparently been worked by that process of printing in color which is tolerably familiar to those who have studied Japanese art. This process, in which the Japanese easily distance competition, has been so used that the appearance of fidelity to the ancient and probably precious original is very great indeed.

— We shall hope for more such colored plates as these in future numbers. Japanese color-printing should be made as familiar to Europeans as possible. Besides the large prints, there is in each number at least one drawing printed with the text, and mainly an outline. One of these represents ancient pieces of armor, much shattered and decayed, evidently a part of the storehouse of some temple or palace. Another shows the exterior of that famous treasure-house at Nara to which special attention has been called of late, and which has come down, almost unchanged, from a remote antiquity. The books are made up in a purely Japanese fashion, covered with pretty paper, printed with a pattern in green and silver on a gray ground, a different pattern being given on the inside and the outside of the covers. The publication is specially worthy of the attention of those who wish to study Japanese art in its least modified, its least sophisticated form. Let the Japanese choose the works of art that you shall study, and let them present such works of art to you in their own way, if you would learn what Japanese art really is. The interpretations of the European commentator will often mislead, and cannot replace the stating of the case which a native will offer you.

—There is strange news relative to the famous Paston letters. Four volumes of the first impression of them were brought out by Sir John Fenn, and a fifth by his nephew, Mr. Serjeant Frere. But to the originals of a considerable portion of this aggregate there hangs a tale. Of the various fate of the remaining originals the details are set forth at length by Mr. James Gairdner, in his excellent edition of the Letters, issued in 1872–'75; and the story is also there told of the mysterious disappearance of the manuscripts from which Sir John Fenn derived the contents of his two first volumes. These manuscripts, three bound volumes, were presented by Sir John to George the Third in 1787. Yet in less than two years they were missing. According to Mr. Gairdner, "there is a tradition that they were last seen in the hands of Queen Charlotte, who, it is supposed, must have lent them to one of her ladies in attendance." Some forty years ago, the late Prince Consort instituted a thorough search for them in the Royal Library at Windsor Castle, but only to end in disappointment. Not a trace of them was discoverable. And now, after the lapse of a century, they have at last turned up in a most unexpected quarter, of their migration to which it would be curious to know the presumably unknowable history. They have come to light in the library of the late Colonel George Tomline, at his seat, Orwell Park, Nacton, in Suffolk. Colonel Tomline was grandson of Bishop Pretyman, afterwards called Tomline, of anti-Calvinistic memory, who was, first, tutor, and subsequently private secretary, to the second William Pitt. The Bishop, it is said, was greatly interested in the manuscript letters; and how, unless through him, they can have found their way to the bookshelves of his descendant is difficult to conjecture. In all likelihood, their resurrection will not, however, prove to be of particular importance. In most cases where Sir John Fenn's discharge of his duties as editor could be tested by reference to the documents which he professed to reproduce, Mr. Gairdner has satisfied himself that it is marked by the most

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praiseworthy scrupulousness. From time to time it has been suggested that Sir John, emulating Chatterton and Macpherson, was the perpetrator of a wholesale fabrication; and the suggestion, a very groundless one, has just been revived. Slight indeed is the hazard in believing that the Paston Letters, after whatever critical investigation, will continue to be accepted as an authentic and valuable contribution to our knowledge of England and Englishmen in that troublous period the fifteenth century, and also of the familiar language, then current, of our forefathers. Cruel would be the blow were we compelled to relegate even Margery Brews's love-letters to John Paston to the category of forgeries.

—Few Harvard graduates know that the College library possesses some thirty volumes of Goethe's writings, marked "Gift of the Author, J. W. v. Goethe of Germany, received Dec. 8, 1819." The fact of this gift, interesting as it is in itself, receives an additional interest from the manner in which it came about. It seems that Dr. J. G. Cogswell, who, with Ticknor, Hedge, and Bancroft, was among the earliest and most devoted friends, in this country, of German scholarship, was also one of the first to awaken Goethe's interest in the most venerable of American seats of learning. Readers of Miss Ticknor's admirable edition of Cogswell's memoirs will remember the touching description of his visit to Goethe and their animated conversation about American life and culture. Before Cogswell came to Weimar, he had shared the widespread prejudice that Goethe was proud and cold; indeed, in one of his letters from Göttingen, he does not hesitate to call him "insufferably vain," and to report in corroboration of his judgment an anecdote which must have impressed him very differently from the way in which it would appear to us of the present day. In an interview with a visiting Frenchman, Goethe is reported to have said: "I know that the world regards me as a carpenter who has built a ship of war, of the first rate, upon a mountain, thousands of miles from the ocean—but the water will rise, my ship will float, and bear her builder in triumph where human genius never reached before." "This," Cogswell adds, "is vanity which can have no parallel. Next week I shall be at Weimar and probably see this strange beast." He did see Goethe; and, instead of the proud, repelling giant for whom he was prepared, he found a kind, benignant man, who received the young foreigner with natural and unaffected heartiness. He soon turned the conversation upon America, and its hopes and promise, and displayed a minute knowledge of the character of its people. He spoke of Boston and its local situation, of the productions of American soil, of the larger scale of crystallizations in America as compared with those of other continents, and of the great prospects of American literature. And throughout their conversation, Cogswell says, he "made juster and more rational observations than I ever heard from any man in Europe." This was in April, 1817, and from that time on until he returned to this country, Cogswell remained in frequent and intimate communication with Goethe. In August, 1819, he went again to Weimar, to take leave of Goethe. "And will you remember me," said the poet, "when you are surrounded by your friends at home? and may I believe that there is a heart in the New World which cares for me?"

—Only one of Goethe's letters to Mr. Cogswell has been preserved, but happily this one throws some light on the Goethe collection in the Harvard College Library. In it Goethe informs his young American friend that he has just sent to the latter's address a parcel containing his "poetical and scientific writings," which he wishes Cogswell would forward to his "dear fellow-countrymen," to whom, he adds, he often finds himself "transported in thought and feeling." That the books mentioned in this letter, which is dated Weimar, August 11, 1819, were intended as a gift to Harvard College and are identical with those now in our possession, is evident from the following entry in the Harvard Corporation Records of the year 1819, which we give here verbatim:

"Translation of Goethe's note:

Through the agency of Mr. J. G. Cogswell.
Goethe's Works. Vol. I.–XX.
Doctrine of the Colours. Vol. I.–II.
—— —— Plates. 4to.
The Propylæa. Vol. I.–III.
Life of J. G. Hackert.
Travels in Italy. Vol. I.–II.
Art and Antiquity. Vol. I.–II.
On Natural Science.
Bohemian Mountains (3 copies).
Iphigenia translated into modern Greek (3 copies).
Occasional Poems.

The above poetical and scientific works are presented to the library of the University at Cambridge in New England, as a mark of deep interest in its high literary character, and in the successful zeal it has displayed through so long a course of years for the promotion of solid and elegant education.

"With the high respects of the author,
"J. W. v. GOETHE.

"WEIMAR, Aug. 11, 1819."

MOORE'S GOTHIC ARCHITECTURE.

Development and Character of Gothic Architecture. By Charles Herbert Moore. With illustrations. Macmillan & Co. Pp. 333.

GOTHIC architecture has never been properly studied by persons who write in English, because what study has been given to it—and it has been much and minute—has been in connection with the so-called Gothic revival in England, beginning in 1840 or thereabouts. This movement has failed entirely to make the architecture of England generally Gothic, or to make even the ecclesiastical architecture of England Gothic in any true sense. The art has not as yet become a modern art, nor has any form of modern art grown out of it in a natural and satisfactory manner. We are left, therefore, to study it as a subject of archæological research, as a part of the history of fine art; and in this respect, as has been said, it has been hitherto neglected by English-speaking people, mainly because of the enthusiastic advocacy of it as a style to build in, on the one hand, and the consequent violent opposition to it, on the other, among architects and decorators.

Mr. Moore's book is to be welcomed as one of the very few serious contributions to this critical study of Gothic architecture, and almost the only one in English. He devotes a chapter to the nature of Gothic architecture. The second chapter, which is much the longest in the book, is devoted to "Gothic Construction in France," and the third to "Pointed Construction in England," these titles indicating the distinction which Mr. Moore wishes to draw between the true and original Gothic buildings of France and the borrowed and less truly Gothic buildings of England. Chapters follow on the pointed construction of Germany, Italy, Spain; on the Gothic profiles of France, and the architectural profiles of the pointed style in other countries; on Gothic painting and stained glass in France and other countries; and on Gothic sculpture in France and other countries.

The book is interesting and truly valuable. The slightest examination shows that it is sincere beyond what is common, full of hearty love for the subject, and yet devoid of prejudice, and that it represents a great deal of careful observation and of earnest thought. Mr. Moore, with a long career as painter and draughtsman of extraordinary delicacy and refinement, and as a teacher of drawing and painting with a singular gift at exciting the enthusiasm and admiration of his pupils, is not an architect nor professedly a student of archæology; and one opens the book rather expecting to find evidence of a certain lack of precision and of minute accuracy in his knowledge of the subject. But it must be stated, at the commencement of our inquiry, that there is very little such evidence to be found, and that it is clear that the enthusiasm and admiration which we have spoken of have sufficed to replace long-continued and special training.

In one respect, however, the book is a disappointment, namely, in the illustrations. Such an artist as Mr. Moore is, so gifted, so accomplished, and so experienced, might have given us, one thinks, more drawings equal to the best of these. The extremely unsatisfactory English architectural wood-engraving of the day is seen, in about its normal condition, in the general drawings of large churches, which the preface assigns to Mr. H. W. Brewer; and the drawings of detail, also in the English manner, though better certainly than the views of Reims, Lincoln, and Ely, are still ugly enough, and very unsatisfactory to one who wishes the true effect of a piece of Gothic carving. We think the student had a right to expect more drawings like that of the front of Senlis, on page 107, or of the apse of St.-Leu d'Esserent, on page 79, or of the Church of Vaux-sous-Laon, on page 104. Such beautiful drawings of sculpture as the one on page 256—the culmination, we think, of the rendering of Gothic sculpture by free-hand drawing—no one has a right to expect, though we had hoped for more of them than this book affords. Most of the other drawings of sculpture are very inferior to this; yet such illustrations as that on page 267, that on page 271, and that on page 250 are certainly admirable in other ways, and very satisfactory to the student. On the whole, the book lacks illustration. There are many cases where the explanation is insufficient, where more illustration is needed. If the cost of the very ugly English engravings could have been saved, and applied to such drawings of associated detail as the one on page 80, the one on page 85, and the others previously mentioned, it would have been well for the book and for its readers.

With regard to the subject-matter of the book, it must be said that, for the last fifteen years, there has been a general consensus of opinion among all but English archæologists that Gothic architecture had its rise in the near neighborhood of Paris, about the middle of the twelfth century; nor is it safe to say that the English archæologists have positively asserted the contrary. Those loud claims of the credit of the invention of Gothic architecture for England which have undoubtedly been made, have often been almost confessedly partisan in their nature, and partake rather of patriotism than of criticism. It has also been agreed generally that England and Spain received the immense gift of the new style in the spirit in which it was offered, finding the need of those constructional devices which, when boldly applied, made Gothic architecture. It is generally agreed, too, that Germany was slower to receive this because the German Romanesque had reached a great pitch of de-

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velopment at the middle of the twelfth century, and vast and noble structures had only recently been built in that style; and, furthermore, that Italy was the slowest of all to adopt the new style, and adopted it always with a certain reluctance. In saying that it is generally so agreed, however, we mean to imply no tiresome reiteration of well-worn truths in Mr. Moore's statement of these facts. Gothic architecture has excited so little interest during the last fifteen years that the conclusions we have mentioned above have scarcely attracted general attention, and are confined to seldom-opened pages of books which may otherwise be in daily use, or to articles in periodicals which are rarely consulted after the date of their issue.

Mr. Moore has done a service to all of us in putting these conclusions into a permanent and readable form, but his book goes further than this, and asserts positively that English Gothic, for instance, should hardly be called Gothic at all, because of the incomplete acceptance of the constructional programme which he claims for the Gothic builders of France. The incompleteness of the Gothic vaulting of England, in many cases even of the best time, may be admitted. The lingering of Romanesque principles of building in the midst of the pointed architecture even of the thirteenth century is evident—more evident than before, now that Mr. Moore has marshalled the instances of it in array. The apparently reluctant adoption of the new principles, and the failure to push them to their legitimate consequences, whether along new and purely English lines or in imitation of the French—all that is true, and it is true that a frank pushing of their principles to their legitimate conclusions is hardly to be found until the introduction of what is called the Perpendicular Style, or even, as we should say, the Fan-Vaulting Style, which is to all appearances an English invention, and one for which full credit should be given to the island builders. But it is difficult to state as positively as our author does that the buildings built according to this modified programme are not Gothic. A new definition must be set up if we propose to deny the name of Gothic to a building constructed with ribbed vaults—the ribs forming pointed arches and having their thrust taken up by buttresses and flying buttresses—for the single reason that it lacks wall-ribs, or that the vaulting-ribs all start from the same level. Between scholars, it may pass; one purist may say to another that he does not call such work as that Gothic at all, and his remark will be understood, and will not seem unduly exaggerated or inappropriate; but it is hardly safe to say to the public that such a building is not Gothic—hardly safe because not (in the sense that the public understands it) true.

It is also to be stated that an argument of this sort does not set the question at rest, because of the lack of dates which are accepted by all parties. Until a chronology of buildings and parts of buildings can be issued which will, in a sense, challenge contradiction or adverse criticism, it will be impossible to expect the students of any country to abandon unanimously their claim for such distinction as the first introduction of Gothic architecture. In the absence of documents giving accurate dates, reasons for the approximate dates given must be made extremely clear. If we do not know, by undoubted manuscripts of the time, in what year the building of such a nave or such a choir was begun, sufficient reasons for believing it to be within five years of the given date must be stated, and the partial reasons for believing it prior to or contemporaneous with such another building must also be made very clear. A dry, perhaps unreadable, almost tabular statement of these successive epochs is needed; but none of the treatises or partial treatises that have yet appeared has pretended to give us this. We go on asserting, on each other's authority, that such a nave was begun in 1180, and that it appears to have been dedicated in 1194, and the like. But, in the first place, the authority for these dates is not inquired into sufficiently, being, as we have said, too readily copied by one writer from another, on the principle on which dictionaries have generally been made; and, secondly, we lack that minute examination by experts into the work itself which will enable one to say, for instance, that it is almost certain that the walls of the nave were carried up in the first two years, and that then there elapsed a considerable space of time before the turning of the ribs of the vaulted roof.

It is not that we think for a moment that Mr. Moore's book should contain this kind of information. We have no right to ask it of him, as he did not propose to furnish it; but it is to be noted that he cannot expect unanimous assent to the rather staggering assertions that he makes—which, however, there is good reason to believe substantially correct—until this kind of work shall have been done by him or for him.

As regards other parts of his work, which are not of primary importance to his inquiry, it is probable that a few years will show reason for reconsideration of the statement that the Italians were slow to accept Gothic architecture. There is many an early monastic church in Italy which has been scarcely studied until of late, full examination of which will probably give cause to modify this opinion. We miss any adequate explanation of that popular movement which created the French cathedral—a movement partly copied, to be sure, in other countries, but which had its origin in northern and central France, and which is far from being exclusively ecclesiastical or even religious. Again we have to say that a deal of dry investigation and of dry writing will have to be gone through before any one can speak with entire freedom of this supremely important factor in the making of Gothic architecture.

TOZER'S ÆGEAN ISLANDS.

The Islands of the Ægean. By the Rev. Henry Fanshaw Tozer, M.A., F.R.G.S., Fellow and Tutor of Exeter College, Oxford, author of 'The Highlands of Turkey,' 'The Geography of Greece,' etc. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.

MR. TOZER'S book is a great disappointment. It is useless to be an able Hellenist, and, knowing the modern Greek, to travel in the portions of the Hellenic world so rarely visited as to be almost unknown to travellers, and yet produce a work which is nothing more than a cursory guide-book for casual sight-seers, and which might have been produced by any average scholar with the aid of the books he mentions. These are Ross's 'Reisen,' Pashley's 'Crete,' Conze's 'Reise,' and Mr. Bent's 'Cyclades.' Mr. Tozer also mentions once, in the course of the text, Spratt's 'Crete,' but he does not seem to have read it, or, if he has, to have profited by it, or he would not have made the mistake he does concerning the Euroclydon of St. Paul. Spratt explains it, from the nautical expert point of view, to be what is known in the eastern Mediterranean as the *Meltem*, a squall which bursts from the high lands down on the adjoining sea. The chapter on Delos, Rhenea, and Tenos might as well not have been published, as it was written in 1874, since when the changes are such that the immovable natural features alone remain to confirm the narrative. As a help to those who might wish to follow him in the journey of 1874 he has left no hint. The lines of steamers have all changed, and Syra is no longer the entrepot for all the archipelago as then, and the steamers now leaving for Crete are no longer limited to the Austrian Lloyds, but the passenger has a choice between three lines leaving Zante, Peiræus, and Syra. In the first chapter we notice a blunder of an historical character in attributing the origin of Malmsey wine to the district of Monemvasia in the Morea, the fact being that it came from Malevisia in Crete, and was the *raison d'être* of the establishment of an English consul in Crete, whose business was to supply Harry the Eighth with this wine. It is represented to-day by the Agios Myron, which is grown on the eastern slopes of Ida.

Crete, which, from the later phases of its history and its political importance, one would have expected to find the author deeply interested in, even if its archæological material had been less than it is, does not seem to have received more than a mere glance, the travellers landing at Canea and simply riding through to Candia, where they reëmbarked for Syra, having seen only the most commonly visited part of the island, and apparently only as the commonplace tourist visits anything, to say that he has seen it. At the moment, while the island is in the desolation of another return of Turkish barbarism, the note which Mr. Tozer makes of its condition six years after the end of the great insurrection of 1866, is worth reading:

"It was here that we first began to realize how terrible had been the results of the last insurrection (1866–'9). Every village that we passed through, and all that we could see along the hill-sides, had been plundered, gutted, and burnt; nothing but ruin met the eye; it was as if a horde of Tartars had swept over the face of the country. A few of these belonged to Mahometans, but the great majority were Christians; and on our arrival the miserable inhabitants—those, that is to say, who had not emigrated—emerged from the lower story of their houses, which they had temporarily repaired, half-clothed and half-starved. . . . This state of things we subsequently found to prevail throughout the island; along our whole route not a single village was standing; and what distressed us most was to find that many of those who were in this lamentable condition were persons of some position and very fair education. Another thing, also, we gathered pretty plainly, viz., that they would rise in insurrection again when the next opportunity presented itself; and this was hardly to be wondered at, for they had nothing to lose, and could hardly be in a worse plight than they were in at that time."

A visit was made to the convent of Arkadi, celebrated for one of those acts of heroic desperation which make the scene of them sacred to history, and the author gives a very incorrect and diminished account of its catastrophe, but is at no pains to furnish a tolerable description of its condition or position. He had, indeed, visited the convent of Agios Eleutherios near Canea, but did not take the trouble to go to the Agia Triada in the Acrotiri, a far more interesting and picturesque site and convent in the same vicinity; and he passes within a short distance of Preveli, the loveliest refuge of meditative monachism in the entire island, and does not mention it. He makes a détour, it is true, to Gortyna, where he refers for "the wonderful archaic inscription" found there in 1884 to "Mr. Roberts's interesting paper in the *Classical Review*," instead of to the discoverer,

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Signor Halbherr's, narrative. It would indeed be difficult to find so listless and pointless a record of any journey in a classical land made by a person of Mr. Tozer's competence, one so closely resembling the condensed diary of a Cook's tourist, as this in Crete. The impression it gives is, that it is the half-oblivious record of the vacation excursion of an over-tired schoolmaster, too jaded to see anything well or remember what he had seen. The journey might have been refreshing and possibly instructive; but the result has hardly an excuse for being printed.

The succeeding chapters on Lesbos, Chios, Samos, Patmos, and the other islands still under the Turkish rule as far as Samothrace, have the merit of somewhat greater freshness, having been written on journeys made in 1886, twelve years after the Cretan voyage. But a curious evidence of the inattention of the author to the details of the life of the people among whom he moved is in the chapter on Lesbos, in which he notices with surprise that they eat the octopus. He says: "The octopus is a considerable article of food in the island, and not among the lower classes only. At the restaurant which we frequented in the town of Mytilene it was entered on the *menu* as one of the dishes, and *we heard it ordered*," which he might have done in any restaurant in Greece or Italy which was frequented by the common people, or even any class which is in the habit of eating at restaurants. The octopus is a common article of food all round the Mediterranean, and when young and tender is one of the best flavored of all the tenants of the deep; the eaters of it, like Mr. Tozer, making no distinction between the cuttle-fish and the octopus proper.

With regard to some of the islands which are rarely visited, we look for more precise information from a man whose education qualifies him for gathering it; but even there we get not only no original research, but not even vivid description which shall enable us to realize what has been vaguely said of their rare picturesqueness by casual travellers. Of Thasos, whose forests are proverbial among the Greek islands, Mr. Tozer writes:

"Descending on foot, I reached the forest, and followed the path that winds downward through it in the midst of most enjoyable surroundings. The calls of the goat-herds to their flocks, the tinkling of the goat-bells, the curling wreaths of smoke from the charcoal-burners' fires, and, as an accompaniment to these, the whispering pines, the running streams, and the expanse of blue sea, formed the perfection of rural scenery. The plain is covered with olive-trees, the extraordinary age of which is shown by their gnarled and twisted trunks; and the turf beneath them was starred with pink anemones and the blue heads of the grape hyacinth."

This is not only Mr. Tozer's best, it is all that he says of the forests of Thasos. He has confused forest, mountain, and plain in one picture.

In what is reported of these least known islands there is something that may serve travellers who mean to visit them as respects the manner of communication and the difficulties of living; but for much information beyond an idea of how the author enjoyed his journeys and how any one else might make them, it is useless to look to the book. As a guide-book even it is not so good as the ancient 'Isles de la Grèce' of Lacroix, which was printed in 1853, for the author has not taken the pains to recall the legends and historical events which alone make travelling in those classic lands more pathetic and interesting than in the more western lands.

RECENT NOVELS.

Mrs. Fenton. By W. E. Norris. New York: Henry Holt & Co.

The Young Queen, and Other Stories. By E. S. Vicars. London: George Bell & Sons.

Viera. A Romance 'Twixt the Real and Ideal. By Roman I. Zubof. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

Erlach Court. Translated from the German of Ossip Schubin by Mrs. A. L. Wister. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

Magdalen's Fortunes. By W. Heimburg. Translated by Mrs. J. W. Davis. Worthington Co.

Countess Loreley. Translated from the German of Rudolf Menger by Miss Daudridge. D. Appleton & Co.

ANOTHER one of the never unwelcome children of Mr. Norris's pen greets us in 'Mrs. Fenton.' Here is, as usual, the clear English which reads itself, a little plot, and a few characters, all well drawn, none deeply interesting. Yet it always turns out that there is not a dull page between Mr. Norris's covers, and that many a well-sent shaft strikes home upon the sense of humor. His is the genius for comfort. His philosophy, his satire, his wit, his cynicism, his tragedy, are all comfortable and make us so. In a recent work of his, that destroyer of modern fiction, Organized Charity, attempted an appearance as one who will no longer be balked of her natural prey. Lo! even that baleful She changed under our author's alchemy, and turned ministering angel. Is it surprising that this talent for geniality should endear him and his novels to the public?

'The Young Queen' and the eight stories grouped with it, are of the young and for the young; but, being quite without the objectionable quality which such stories often have, of a sub-conscious appeal to the elders, they at once become pleasing to readers of all ages. They are slight in construction, some of them being mere fragments; but their quality is both rare and fine, and makes itself felt by a delicate pungency and a graceful originality. A chattering school-girl who appears in several of the sketches is capitally drawn. The story of two girls who go unchaperoned to a fancy ball is charming. Their meeting with a guest who represents Pepys, and their badinage with him in perfect understanding of the literary situation, is but one example of the pretty wit that runs through the book. The whole breathes an unusual spirit of humor, of compactness of style, and of a fine cultivation, speaking in light, natural tones, and not put on for the making of a book.

That 'Viera' is announced as a romance "'twixt the real and the ideal" prepares the reader for a good deal of balderdash, and this expectation is amply fulfilled. A young man named Alick succeeds to the title and estates of a disreputable gambling uncle. Among his new possessions is the portrait, and also the ghost, of a terrible old gambler who in his lifetime played with the uncle. He now plays with Alick, the stakes being a beautiful young woman, who appears as a sort of astral body. The card-playing takes place only on Fridays. On intervening days Alick rides and talks philosophy and slang with a cousin, of the "young-man-called-John" type, and visits a pretty kinswoman. The latter he stimulates to lofty action in page upon page of turgidity, bidding her "renounce the society whose conditions suck the very life-blood of her moral being." When he pauses for breath she prods him with polysyllables—or demolishes a chance antagonist who is present at one of the debates, by saying: "The abundant facts of history demonstrate against your contentions." Viera, the ideal maiden, now begins to carry Alick off upon aerial excursions. Soaring through the signs of the Zodiac, they visit heaven, Siberia, and other places, giving each other good advice upon love en route. In Alick's heart it is nip and tuck between Viera of the interstellar spaces and Edith of the spiritualistic séances and picnics; but a lecture of twenty pages on woman's rights delivered by Edith in a public hall carries the day. Alick forsakes Viera, and, after the due attack of brain fever, marries Edith, and we leave them, the world, and the universe, "revolving and striving towards the perfect realization of their archetype."

Ossip Schubin's novels are well known in Austria and Germany; but, so far as we know, do not often find themselves in America. This is the more surprising because they are far better suited to the modern taste than are the antiquated affairs, half nursery, half madhouse, which contrive to get themselves translated from the German as entertaining fiction. Ossip Schubin deals largely with scenes laid among the Austrian aristocracy. In 'Erlach Court' the characters are notably real, or, when unusual, are drawn with a commanding touch which gives them a title to life. There is, moreover, a vein of exceeding cleverness which yields delightful flashes on every page. The story is by no means dull, but it is the way of telling it which is chiefly attractive. When, as sometimes happens, the characters crowd too closely, they bring their own excuse in the vividness of their being. This goes far to cover the fault of a certain loose-endedness in the construction. Mrs. Wister's translation is of course admirably made, and the public will thank her for what she has done and for her skill in doing it.

'The Countess Loreley' is also translated, and well translated, from the German. Like 'Erlach Court,' it is thoroughly modern, and, so far, a novelty. It is, however, far less spontaneous and sparkling, though affording an occasional noteworthy observation. The Loreley herself is somewhat hazy as a portrait, and the group of gentlemen who surround her are rather too much in the extremes of excellence or unworthiness to be very real personages. The author, too, seems to have been conscientiously painstaking in keeping the story as near the verge of the disagreeable as possible, without any honest cause. Some scenes from the campaign of 1870 are hardly more than a feint of making a serious affair of the book, which persists in appearing nebulous and frivolous, spite of much bloodshed. We leave the Loreley smiling upon her third husband, and wonder if this is to be the novelist's new vogue.

'Magdalen's Fortunes,' on the other hand, appeals strongly to the psychologic sense of having experienced it before, which may be due either to the separate action of the lobes of the brain, or to the inherent qualities of this class of German novels. One is forced to remember the madman whose delusion was that he had a state dinner every day; "yet," said he, "somehow everything that I eat tastes of oatmeal porridge." How well we know already "the stately man," the "pale, lovely girl," with golden braids; the faithful coachman Gottlieb, the haughty matron, the machinating widow, the forester living in the deep wood, the spring landscape, and the obsolete upholstery. There is nothing to offend, and it may even yield an anæmic pleasure. The present estimate, however, would class it among those books which afford "not enjoyment and not sorrow."

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A Naturalist among the Head-Hunters. Being an account of three visits to the Solomon Islands in the years 1886, 1887, and 1888. By Charles M. Woodford. London: G. Philip & Son; New York: Longmans. 1890. Pp. xii, 249. 8vo.

THE Royal Geographical Society has paid a high and well-deserved tribute to the value of Mr. C. M. Woodford's work in the Solomon Islands in making him their Gill memorialist for this year. It required no little devotion to science and a rare courage to live alone, for months at a time, among a people who, during the last two years, have murdered one white man out of every three among them—a people whose first thought on seeing a stranger is, "Will he kill me?" the second, "Can I kill him?" Mr. Woodford's purely geographical work was inconsiderable in comparison with the zoölogical, his collections consisting of more than 20,000 specimens, with many species new to science. The most interesting chapter in his book is an account of an ordinary day's occupation, in which he shows unusual powers of description of bird and insect life. The morning he spent in collecting, accompanied by his boy Barakossa, "a youth of about twelve years of age, who combines in himself the offices of cook, keeper of the animals, collector of orchids, and general adviser on native matters." By four in the afternoon his day's captures are put up, and his native collectors begin to appear with butterflies, prawns, snakes, or birds, receiving in return sticks of tobacco. One boy alone desires his butterflies to be put to his credit, as he wants a large knife valued at twelve sticks. Until night-fall the natives sit about his hut discussing the news and begging for tobacco, which, however, they will not steal. Though he left his hut, containing a large store of this precious commodity, sometimes for a week at a time, the door being closed simply with palm leaves, Mr. Woodford never lost "so much as a stick of tobacco." The evening is devoted to bird-skinning, and capturing the moths and beetles which, attracted by the light, fly in at the open door. This life was diversified by occasional trips in traders' schooners or canoes to different places, and by lengthened excursions into the interior of two of the islands.

Our traveller does not appear to have been as keen an observer of human life as he was of birds and insects, and frankly confesses that the longer he lived on the Solomons the more conscious he became "of possessing nothing but the most superficial knowledge of the natives and their customs." In this respect he differs from Prof. Lumholtz, which is to be regretted, as the Solomon Islanders are far more interesting than the North Australian savages. They cultivate the ground, build excellent keel-boats on scientific principles, and have some skill in ornamentation and carving. Although naturally treacherous and cowardly, when their confidence was won they were apparently trustworthy, and, as we have seen, strictly honest. Cannibalism and head-hunting is decreasing, though still rife in some of the islands. On one of them this singular custom prevails:

"All the villages of the district will club together and make a pool of native money, shell-beads, armlets, necklaces of porpoise teeth, and other ornaments, which goes to the village that distinguishes itself most in the attack upon the first vessel that comes along. At the village of Manaqui, at the time I am writing of, might have been seen a receptacle, raised on four posts and approached by a ladder. This was used as a bank for the pool money so collected. At the time I last left the group, viz., December, 1888, I knew that there was money out in this part of Malaita for a ship, and I regret to hear that the pool has since been won by an attack on the small trading schooner *Savo*, in which three white men and twelve natives lost their lives."

Mr. Woodford discovered during his last visit that an extensive and widespread system of castes exists upon some of the Southern islands. He could learn little of them besides the facts that "a man might not marry a woman belonging to his own caste," and that "natives belonging to tribes speaking a different language will be found to belong to the same caste." The fauna of the Solomon Islands is extremely interesting, as it includes many extraordinary species, as rats "nearly two feet in length," tree-climbers; frogs weighing over two pounds and a half; butterflies which measured "nearly nine inches across the wings," and the smallest of parrots known. This last, together with several species of bats, was discovered by our author. Although the islands are but five hundred miles distant from New Guinea, they have but one marsupial and no birds of paradise. It should be added, however, that our knowledge of them is by no means complete, the interior of none of the larger islands (which contain lofty mountain ranges, in one instance, on Bougainville, 10,000 feet high) having been explored. In the closing chapters a connected narrative is given of two of the author's trips, and there is an appendix treating of the different languages with vocabularies, and one in which it is argued that San Christoval was the sacred isle of Bouro—according to their traditions, the cradle of the Polynesian race.

There is much that is interesting in Mr. Woodford's book, though he was hampered by the fact that Dr. Guppy had gone over much the same ground in greater detail in his larger and more important work on these islands, published three years ago. The maps and illustrations are excellent. One of the boy collectors shows an unusually well-shaped head and a pleasing and intelligent face.

The Working Principles of Political Economy in a New and Practical Form: A Book for Beginners. By S. M. Macvane. New York: Effingham Maynard & Co. 1890.

IF it be true of political economy, as Prof. Macvane declares, that "there is nothing in the science that young persons of ordinary ability may not master if only they apply themselves," how shall we explain the fact that in their dealings with it not only our legislators, but most of our writers, and even many of our professors, betray incompetency? In truth, the science is not an easy one, and any mastery of it obtained by the schoolboy is likely to be a mastery of words and not of ideas. But we do not hesitate to say that for those who wish to apply themselves seriously to this study, no sounder guidance than is here provided is anywhere to be found. Almost all current discussion of social topics suffers from a blunder about wages that has been in recent years extensively received. Prof. Macvane renders the community a valuable service in demonstrating the absurdity of the view that wages are drawn from the product of the labor for which the wages are paid, instead of being advanced out of previous savings. The clearness and force with which this is done are thoroughly admirable, and there will be hereafter no excuse for disregarding in these discussions the all-important element of time.

The fact that we select this demonstration for praise is by no means to be taken as implying that the treatment of other questions is not marked by the same ability. Few books display a stronger grasp throughout on the part of the author of all the details of his subject, and if we limit our special commendation to one point, it is only because that point is at present of peculiar timeliness. The few criticisms that we shall venture upon relate to comparatively unimportant matters, and are intended only to draw attention to statements which seem likely to occasion learners some confusion.

Thus the statement that buying is easier than selling, although perhaps a maxim among business men, will hardly bear examination. In the first place, every purchase is a sale, and secondly, injudicious buying is the most potent cause of ruin to both manufacturers and tradesmen. It is easy enough to buy at the seller's price, but it is quite as easy to sell at the buyer's price. The price that is given is quite as important as the price that is received. Again, when it is said that buying and selling do not create wealth, because they merely lessen the labor of carrying on exchange, we are led to inquire rather closely into the meaning of "creating" wealth. Of course, there is no creation of matter, and human industry is as a whole devoted to putting matter in the place and shape in which it is wanted. In this complicated process buying and selling, like transportation, may be as useful as any productive action, and, in so far as they economize labor, are properly described as creative of wealth.

It is a possibly misleading statement that comparatively few men own capital. The term "comparatively" is elastic, but if we were to consider the immense number of farmers and house-owners, and the constant increase of deposits in banks and other investments, we should probably conclude that the capitalists were in the majority. We fail to find any definition of "demand and supply." These magic words have been so often used to cover up logical shortcomings that the beginner should be put on his guard against an unthinking use of them. The substitution of "amount of waiting" for the established term "abstinence" seems to us to be attended with no advantage sufficient to compensate for the friction resulting from the change. It is like putting a statute that has been thoroughly construed into new language. We do not understand why a farmer does not practise abstinence, whether he employs a hired man or not.

It is paradoxical to maintain that risks to the capital employed in production are no burden in themselves, and the greater simplicity resulting from the resolution of the burden of risk into labor seems to us attained by disregarding an essential element or condition of production. In the very able treatment of money, Prof. Macvane occasionally uses language that may not arouse the learner to the difference between capital and currency, and something might be gained by distinguishing more carefully between currency and money in the narrower sense. The treatment seems to us at times possibly affected by the old currency theory, especially in the explanation of the phenomena of depressed business. Quite different results attend the normal increase of money and the application of labor-saving contrivances in its use, and that abnormal creation of currency occasioned by expectations of extraordinary profits. A little more space might well have been given to credit. But perhaps it would not be possible to improve the discussion without making it too elaborate for such a treatise.

The subject of protective duties being a political issue, the author prefers to confine him-

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self to a statement of the arguments on both sides. He omits, however, and perhaps in a purely economical treatise he ought to omit, the most weighty argument in favor of free trade, that it prevents the prostitution of Government to the pecuniary interests of individuals. He does not feel it necessary to maintain the same reserve on the silver question. The appendix contains a convenient table showing the duties and amounts collected upon the principal articles of import. Upon the whole, we are disposed to recommend this book as the best summary of the leading principles of political economy that has fallen under our notice. Whether it will prove the best for beginners, experience will show; but mature minds will find it sufficiently strong meat to exercise their digestive powers.

The Anatomy of the Frog. By Dr. Alexander Ecker. Translated, with numerous annotations and additions, by George Haslam, M.D. Oxford: The Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1889.

AS is well remarked in the introduction, "there is no occasion nowadays to offer a lengthened apology for devoting a treatise solely to the anatomy of the frog, which enjoys the doubtful honor of being, *κατ' ἐξοχήν*, the physiological domestic animal. It is kept in every physiological laboratory, and is daily sacrificed in numbers upon the altar of science. The physiologist has recourse to it, not only to obtain answers to new questions, but for the sake of demonstrating easily and quickly the most important known facts of the science. These unlucky batrachians are to be had in any number, and are specially adapted for experimental investigation; they have consequently fallen under a harsher tyrant than the stork in the fable, and their prophetic outcry in the frog chorus of Aristophanes, *δεινὰ πεισόμεθα*, has been literally fulfilled."

Even granting all that is implied in the above paragraph, and recalling the experiments that are now commonly done upon frogs in the most elementary grade of physiological teaching, the general reader may yet wonder that to the structure of this humble creature could be devoted 450 pages of text, and a figure, upon the average, for every third page; still less might he be prepared to find that, notwithstanding this and several other treatises of lesser scope, and several hundred papers on more or less special topics (over 300 are cited in connection with the nervous system alone), there are yet many things to learn about the frog, and several points which are still the subjects of distinct differences of opinion.

The accuracy and clearness of the present work are to be ascribed to the unusually composite nature of its authorship. The chief author, professor of anatomy at Freiburg, published the first part in 1864, and for the second, which appeared sixteen years later, had the coöperation of Wiedersheim. The translator, formerly of Owen's College, England, now of Zurich, has brought his work up to date by conscientious use of publications and by personal investigations. Finally, it is stated that the entire proof was read by A. Milnes Marshall, himself the author of a treatise on frog anatomy, and consequently the closest critic of another's work.

Notwithstanding the extended text and numerous illustrations, there are some serious and apparently needless deficiencies; *e. g.*, there is no figure of the conarium, so peculiarly located outside of the cranium, or even of the cranial or dermal regions connected with it; the account of the skin, while detailed in respect to the "supplemental toe," neither describes the conarial spot nor refers to the paragraph (p. 155) where it is considered in connection with the brain; nowhere, excepting from the "literature of the nervous system," would the reader learn that a single eye upon the top of the head has been shown to be connected with the conarium in a considerable number of vertebrates. The interesting lymph-hearts are inadequately presented. The central nervous system is treated with reasonable fulness, but the morphologically important lining membrane of the cavities is omitted from the figures, and the most important and instructive view of the brain, viz., when divided on the middle line, is omitted. It might have been supplied from the papers of H. F. Osborn (whose name, by the way, is constantly lengthened by an *e*).

The colored plates and most of the woodcuts are not only correct, but artistically good. Exceptions are the representations of the humerus (Figs. 35 and 36), and of the liver (Fig. 194) —the last almost indescribably inappropriate. A commendable feature is the arrangement of the explanations of figures in separate lines alphabetically.

In view of the declared preference for simpler terms, it is to be hoped that in another edition those typical long names, *vena cava anterior* and *posterior* may be superseded by Owen's unmistakable mononyms, *precava* and *postcava*. The consistent employment of the unequivocal terms *dorsal* and *ventral* is to be noted, especially since their unanimous sanction at the recent session of the Association of American Anatomists.

The small size of all European frogs, and the consequent need of enlarging most parts, occasions the query why the great bullfrog of North America has not been introduced, if only for the sake of museum preparations, laboratory instruction, and class demonstration. For the latter purpose and for physiological research the frog will probably retain its present sad eminence; but it is far from perfect from the purely anatomical point of view. Like the human species, it is a morphological monstrosity, and should be tabued to beginners in biology in favor of some less specialized form, like the European *Proteus* or the North American *Necturus*, which also might perhaps be naturalized in other parts of the world.

Browning's Message to his Time: His Religion, Philosophy, and Science. By Edward Berdoe. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co. 1890.

DR. BERDOE is a leading member of the Browning Society. The present collection is a series of papers read before students of the poet. They are brief, and are confined to a few fundamental points which in fact may be reduced to two, namely, that Browning was a Christian and a scientific poet. As to the first of these statements, it cannot be said that Dr. Berdoe has anything fresh to bring forward; in this part, which is the least interesting, the author is engaged only in propagandism, and assuring his audience that in Browning they will find a spiritual guide. The second statement, however, occasioned controversy when it was made, and in an appendix to the lecture containing it a very able letter is inserted, in which the writer argues cleverly that if Browning is a scientific poet, the "less poet he." Without entering upon the question of the capabilities of science as material for poetry, it must be said that Dr. Berdoe hardly makes out his case. Browning used illustrations from science, with some parts of which he was acquainted, but not in any profuse way except in one of his least known pieces, "Numpholeptos"; but beyond this consideration he did not express the scientific spirit or observe scientific method in his thought, and hence cannot fairly be regarded as the exponent of the scientific habit of mind in poetry. Science gave color to his verse, as it also has done to Tennyson's; in the results of science he had great interest; but the thoughts of science were but a small portion of his thoughts, and by no means the significant portion. Dr. Berdoe, as a physician, may notice and value more the elements which Browning took from science in setting forth his own ideas; but he clearly overestimates them, as is shown by the paucity and repetition of the examples. Quite the most valuable paper in this volume is that upon Paracelsus, which is a study of him in history as the Reformer in medicine, and touches the poem only indirectly. The great defect of the book as a whole is its tedious repetition of the same thoughts, and especially the same short quotations, which seem to serve the author as texts, and are always used as proofs of what he is laying down. The work of a faithful and enthusiastic student is here, but of critical faculty or literary sensibility there is a "plentiful lack."

On the Wing through Europe. By Francis C. Sessions. Welch, Fracker Co.

THIS book is written in such a kindly and unassuming spirit that we find it difficult to criticise it very severely. The contents had much better, however, have been left in the columns of the newspaper for which the author tells us it was "written hastily, . . . as I could catch a moment's time on the cars, or while stopping for rest during the intervals of travel and sight-seeing." Considering that this is a third edition, there must be a demand for such writing. Mr. Sessions tells us of the England of Disraeli, Paris of the Exhibition of 1878, and Switzerland while the St. Gothard tunnel was in process of construction. The author makes a mistake in thinking that the present edition "would gain nothing" by revision. It is bad enough to learn that (p. 19) Christ Church Cathedral, Dublin, was built in 1038; that (p. 135) it is only twenty-four miles from London to Dover; that (p. 167) the Danube rises near the St. Gothard Pass; that (p. 197) the Pope *and seventy-two* cardinals reside in the Vatican; but when (p. 159) we are told of passing by Lake *Sesaporck* on the route between Basle and Lucerne, and when (p. 175) the gloominess of the stores in *Regent Street Quadrant, Berne*, are spoken of, we begin to suspect that the printer's devil must have got at the forms before they went to press.

The author's sense of humor is not keen, or he would scarcely have concluded with the following paragraph:

"If I may be pardoned, I should be glad to indulge a little local pride, and say that, in all my travels, I have not seen so prosperous and thrifty a city as my own city of Columbus, Ohio, nor, for its size, any place so attractive in public buildings of masterly design and splendid workmanship. The old State House, with its Doric style of architecture, massive and grand, is a noble structure, and if the dome were remodelled so as to render it symmetrical with the other parts of the building, surrounding it with columns, as has been suggested, it would challenge the criticism of the world. Our Hospital for the Insane is the largest of any yet erected, and all of our public buildings—the idiot asylum, and those for the blind, deaf, and dumb, the Ohio State University, and the Penitentiary—are certainly, considering their cost, equal for style of architecture to any in the world, and would attract

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the attention of all who are competent to judge in the matter."

Artist, printer, and bookbinder have well done their part.

Essays on Subjects of Moral and Social Interest. By John Stuart Blackie. Edinburgh: David Douglas. 1890.

THE five essays that fill this volume, upon Christianity and Social Organization, Physical and Moral Analogies, the Philosophy of Party, Scottish Nationality, and Philosophy of Education, belong to that more formal and laborious kind of essay which flourished before the magazine supplanted the review, and which grew with especial vigor in Scotland. Prof. Blackie makes the attempt to lay out his subject on a long scale, and to treat it reasonably on all its sides; he puts it to intellectual siege, and prepares to reduce it in the old way, with at least a three-months' interval before the corps of the Reviewers must move on to new posts. This sense of importance in the matter and of thoroughness in the method of examination is a pleasant change from our present off-hand and cut-down magazine papers, imparts seriousness and dignity to the volume, and gives it the flavor of a departed respectability. In the matter, too, a strong character and a vigorous mind are seen to be held fast, as if they had grown into the subject of thought and interest and had become bound up with it; there is something of prejudice, even, in the work which gives a tang; and there is a good deal that is Scotch, just as there always was in the Reviewers. The Scotch ballads and the Scotch heroes are very much to Mr. Blackie's taste, and in none of the essays is he quite so perfervid as in the analysis of Scotch nationality, and the plea for it against the Anglification of our day. The defence of war, too, with much effrontery for these times, must be a part of the old blood-thirsty inheritance of the Border; in fact, the author seems to *love* war, and this, in a book whose every other page preaches the name of Christianity, is sufficiently remarkable. The incomplete comprehension evinced by him of the doctrine and spirit of democracy is also singular to an American reader, and the conception of the "Christian" landlord and "lord-manufacturer" as a permanent fixture in organized society, where "Christianity" will continuously affect the law of wages favorably to the workmen, is an extraordinary contribution to economics, which may perhaps be classed with the curious argument that death is a good because it makes the old give place to the young, who enjoy life more. Strewn upon the pages one finds much whimsical or loosely-thought matter, perversities and twists of judgment, and, of course, a fine scorn of the other side, and some excellent examples of vehement rhetoric; but through the whole there is also a sound common-sense element, and in the chapter on education there will be found some remarks upon methods of teaching of high value.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

App'etons' Annual Cyclopædia for 1889. D. Appleton & Co. $5.
Chambers, G. F. Handbook of Descriptive and Practical Astronomy. 4th ed. Vol. II. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan & Co. $5.25.
Keltie, J. S. The Statesman's Year-Book for 1890. Macmillan & Co. $3.
Kobbé, G. The Central Railroad of New Jersey: an Illustrated Guide-Book. New York: Gustav Kobbé.
Loewe, L. Diaries of Sir Moses and Lady Montefiore. 2 vols. Chicago: Belford, Clarke Co.
Masson, Prof. D. Collected Writings of Thomas De Quincey. Vol. VII. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
Peabody, Prof. A. P. Harvard Graduates Whom I Have Known. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Russell, W. C. Horatio Nelson and the Naval Supremacy of England. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.75.
Sargent, J. Y. Exemplaria Græca: Selections from Passages for Translation into Greek. Macmillan & Co. 90 cents.
Satchel Guide for the Vacation Tourist in Europe. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Slingo, W., and Brooker, A. Electrical Engineering for Electric Light Artisans and Students. Longmans, Green & Co. $3.50.
Smyth, Rev. N. Personal Creeds; or, How to Form a Working-Theory of Life. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.
Steele, W. Mortal Lips. Belford Co.
Storrs, Rev. R. S. The Puritan Spirit. Boston: Congregational Sunday-School and Publishing Society. 75 cents.
Stuart, G. H. Autobiography. Philadelphia: J. M. Stoddart & Co.
Sullivan, T. R. Day and Night Stories. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.
Sweetser's Maritime Provinces. 7th ed. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Sweetser's New England. 12th ed. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Sweetser's White Mountains. 10th ed. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Swedenborg, E. Angelic Wisdom concerning the Divine Love and the Divine Wisdom. Am. Swedenborg Printing and Publishing Society.
Symonds, J. A. Introduction to the Study of Dante. 2d ed. Macmillan & Co. $1.75.
Taylor, Rev. I. The Origin of the Aryans. Scribner & Welford. $1.25.
Thayer, W. R. The Best Elizabethan Plays. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.40.
Tilden, Rev. W. P. The Work of the Ministry. Boston: Geo. H. Ellis.
Titled Americans: A List of American Ladies who have Married Foreigners of Rank. Street & Smith. 50 cents.
Tourgée, A. W. Pactolus Prime. Cassell Publishing Co. $1.
Tozer, Rev. H. F. The Islands of the Ægean. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $2.25.
Trelawny, E. J. Adventures of a Younger Son. New ed. Macmillan & Co. $1.50.
Twenty Novelettes by Twenty Prominent Novelists. Frank F. Lovell & Co. 30 cents.
United Australia: Public Opinion in England. Sydney: Charles Potter.
Valdés, A. P. Sister Saint Sulpice. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.50.
Van Dyck, H. God and Little Children. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.
Wallace, J. H. Year-Book of Trotting and Pacing in 1889. Vol. V. Wallace Trotting Register Co.
Welch, C. Catalogue of the Guildhall Library of the City of London. London.
What One Can Do with a Chafing-dish. John Ireland. 75 cents.
Wolff, J. The Salt Master of Lüneburg. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.50.
Worth, E. A Little Worldling. Am. News Co. 50 cents.

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